

THE CATHEDRAL HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES





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Book .1

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CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS
After St. Gaudens's Statue

THE CATHEDRAL HISTORY
OF THE
UNITED STATES

A REVISION OF
A HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES
FOR CATHOLIC SCHOOLS

PREPARED AND ARRANGED BY
of the Third order of St. Francis
THE FRANCISCAN SISTERS OF THE PERPETUAL ADORATION,
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INTRODUCTION

The Cathedral History of the United States is a revision of *A History of the United States for Catholic Schools*. This revised edition represents a complete rewriting of the original text. The main features of the revision are as follows:

(1) **Inclusiveness.** The facts of the history of our country, as well as the interpretation of the facts, have been brought up to date. A final chapter gives a panorama of the growth and development of our country during the past century.

(2) **Condensation.** Much material of minor importance has been omitted, and new material has been added to make important matters more vivid to the pupil's mind. The omissions have in no way destroyed the unity of the book, but rather have served to knit the various parts more closely together.

(3) **Simplification.** The text has been simplified to such an extent that the average pupil will have no difficulty in understanding what he reads. Simple explanations have been made of all difficult but unavoidable terms.

(4) **Aids to Study.** Questions and Theme Topics will be found at the end of each chapter. They have been carefully prepared to test the pupil's understanding of what he has studied. They are not intended to supplant the teacher's own methods of testing comprehension, but merely to supplement them. The teacher may suggest additional topics for themes when suitable material for those listed cannot easily be obtained.

(5) **Reading Lists.** A Reading List for Pupils will be found on pages 485 and following. These books have been selected as amply supplementing the present text and as fitting in with its conception of American history. The list is not a long

one; the authors believe that intensive reading in a small list of books is preferable to indiscriminate reading in a wide one. Ample material for the Theme Topics will be found in the pages of the references. A Reading List for the Teacher will be found on pages 490 and following.

(6) **Illustrations.** Many new drawings and pictures have been added to the book, thus presenting to the eye attractive pages that will naturally impel an interest in the text itself. A large proportion of these new pictures are line-drawings made expressly for this new edition. The illustrations have not been chosen at random, but selected rather for their value in making clear to the reader's mind the matter of the text itself. From the picture of an Indian wigwam to that of the New York waterfront the illustrations show progressively the development of our country.

There are many histories of the United States, each bearing its message of patriotism. The purpose of the revised edition, as was that of its predecessor, is to offer a text which sets forth not only all the usually taught historical facts, but also the too often forgotten efforts of the Church in American History. The venturesome explorer, the intrepid colonizer, the hardy pioneer, the noble warrior, the eloquent statesman, are all given their due praise; but the quiet heroism of the loyal sons and daughters of the Catholic Church is also lifted from obscurity into the light of reverent knowledge.

Our country is justly proud of the liberty she offers to all her children. But these children are many in faith, and diversified in race peculiarities. Common interests may seem to unite them from time to time, but there can be no true, permanent union except where the spirit and the faith are dominating forces. But where is found such a bond of unity except in the Catholic Church? Mother Church folds her arms about all her children and questions not their color or their race.

The mind may travel with lightning speed from the Atlantic to the Pacific, from the frozen plains of the north to

the sunny plantations of the south; it may grasp with keen perception all that this great country symbolizes and displays; the heart may glow with righteous pride for our national achievements. But in addition to all these, the great share that Catholics have had in the discovery and exploration of America should thrill with reverent joy the heart of every Catholic student, and cause him to love more sincerely and serve more loyally the chosen country of God. For this is the land whose borders Ericson and Columbus first touched; whose Great Lakes were discovered and made known by Champlain; whose broad Mississippi Valley and fertile western plains were first traversed by intrepid and self-sacrificing men, such as Father Hennepin, Du Lhut, Joliet, Father Marquette, and La Salle—Catholics, every one of them. Furthermore, it is the land whose virgin soil was hallowed by the blood of the Catholic missionaries; in whose council halls rang the voices of eloquent Catholic statesmen; and on whose battlefields fearless Catholic soldiers bled, and quiet Sisters of Charity served.

We may not build a shrine at every spot consecrated by the glorious deeds of our unlaureled Catholic heroes and heroines who have helped to make our history, but we may set up these shrines in the hearts of the young. Here we may hope to build a temple in the inner sanctuary, in which the Blessed Mother, the Patroness of the Republic of Washington and Lincoln, may be honored with devotion undying. To Mary Immaculate this modest work is humbly dedicated.

In the preparation of this book, the authors have had assistance from so many persons that it would be quite impracticable in this restricted space to mention them all. Special thanks are due to the Jesuit Fathers of Prairie du Chien, Wisconsin, and St. Louis, Missouri; as also to other scholarly members of the Catholic clergy who have read and re-read the manuscript and offered numerous valuable suggestions. Miss Mary E. Tobin, Principal of the Cregier School, Chicago, Illinois, among others, has read critically the proofs and has rendered

important service in preparing this work for publication. Miss Marguerite L. O'Brien, of Chicago, has given constructive and important help toward the preparation of the text of the Cathedral History.

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TO THE TEACHER

Each chapter in this book contains a unit of closely associated facts. The teacher may well read and discuss each entire unit with his class before assigning any part of it for study, even though this reading may take more than one recitation period.

Only those dates should be memorized which serve to associate important facts more closely. Dates, however, are to the student what milestones are to the traveler, and they should not be neglected. In the "Chronological Review" at the end of each period, important dates are listed.

Use maps daily when discussing voyages, explorations, settlements, etc. Trace routes and locate settlements on the map. It may serve well to quote Carlyle here, who says that chronology and geography are "the two great lamps of history."

In the teaching of the different periods, or epochs, into which the history is divided, the following points should be made clear to pupils:

1. Be sure that the pupils appreciate the proper setting of United States history, before they begin to study it in detail. They should know the threefold chronological divisions of world history—Ancient, Medieval, and Modern. They should also understand the difference between Sacred history and Profane, or Secular history;

2. Acquaint the pupil thoroughly with the important events of the period of Colonization, since our later history and the Constitution can be understood only in the light of our pioneer history. Note:

(a) how Christianity, though represented by conflicting creeds, existed in each colony, and how the Catholic Church, like the mustard seed of the Gospel, has flourished and grown, as it were, into a mighty tree;

(b) how the emigration from many different nations has given us that remarkable sobriety, energy, and progressiveness for which our country is characterized. Call attention to the fact that the original traits can still be distinguished in the manners and customs of the direct descendants of the pioneer colonizers, who inhabit certain localities, (Pennsylvania, Maryland, New York, Massachusetts);

(c) how the early assemblies and other institutions of self-government in the colonies eventually developed into our present republican government vested in three departments;

(d) that the origin of our present Constitution may be traced back to the principles which were set out in the *Mayflower* compact of the Pilgrims, the charter of Lord Baltimore, Penn's Great Law, and the Fundamental Orders of Connecticut;

(e) how our present public school system had its origin in the educational zeal of the northern colony builders, and how our cherished parochial schools grew from humble beginnings into the splendid system which now labors so zealously for the spiritual and intellectual welfare of our country.

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A HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

PERIOD OF EARLIEST INHABITANTS

CHAPTER I

THE INDIANS

1. Name and Origin. When Columbus discovered America he found here a strange people, with high cheek-bones, copper-colored skin, small, dark eyes, and thick, black hair. Since Columbus thought he had reached India, he called these natives Indians. We are not certain how long the Indians had been here, nor from what place they had come, though some believe they had emigrated from Asia many ages before the white man came.

2. Manners and Customs. In cold weather the Indian wore the furry skins of animals, which he decorated with beads or other ornaments, while in warm weather he wore little or no clothing. His home was a tent, called a wigwam, that might be moved from place to place, a rude hut made of earth or bark, or a cavern among the mountain cliffs.

The woman, called "squaw," did most of the work. She planted the seeds, gathered the scanty crops of maize, or "Indian corn," pumpkins, and tobacco, carried the wigwam when the man decided to move, dried the skins of the wild animals caught by the men, and made the moccasins and other articles of clothing.

The man was a warrior who spent most of his time in fighting. His weapons were the bow and arrow, the club, the knife, and the tomahawk. When not engaged in war, he hunted or fished. On land he traveled by foot, following the trail of the deer or

the buffalo; on the lakes and rivers he used his birch-bark canoe. Although he had no written language, he sometimes recorded battles and other events by means of picture writing.



INDIAN WIGWAM

3. Religion. The Indian was a worshiper of nature and of his ancestors. He saw in every animal, plant, or object in nature a divinity, not to be loved, but to be feared. Only after the coming of the missionaries did the idea of a Supreme Being, or "Great Spirit," enter into his religion. He thought that after death he would live in the "Happy Hunting Ground," the Indian's heaven.

4. Degrees of Civilization. There were three groups among the early Indians—savage, barbarous, and semi-civilized.

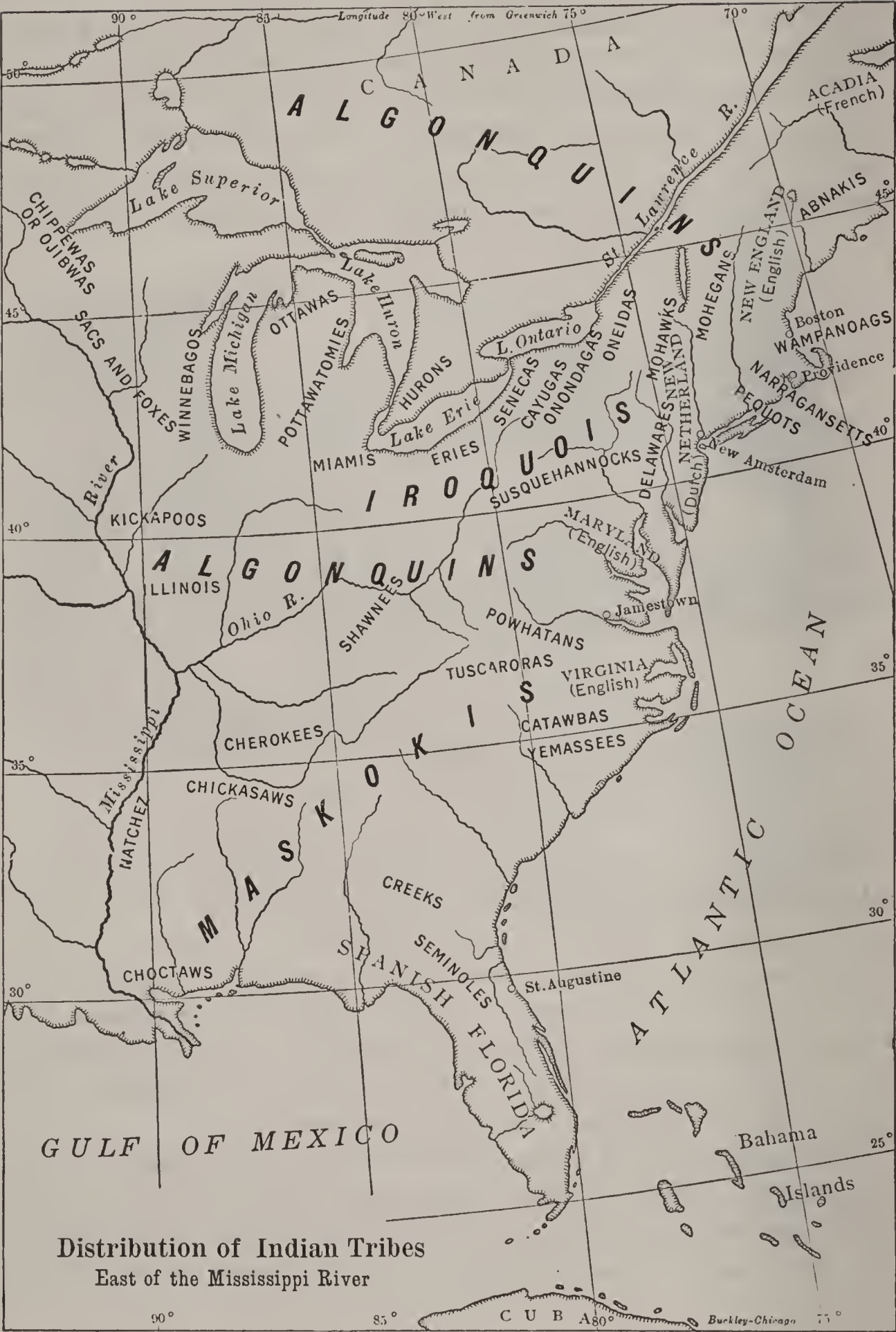
The savage Indians lived in the country west of Hudson Bay and west of the Rocky Mountains as far south as the northern part of Mexico. They did not till the soil or settle in villages, but lived on fish and game, moving from one place to another.



AN IROQUOIS LONG-HOUSE

The barbarous Indians inhabited all of North America south of Hudson Bay and east of the Rocky Mountains. They raised such plants as maize, tobacco, pumpkins, squashes, beans, tomatoes, and sunflowers, and lived in villages consisting of houses of bark or sunburnt clay and wigwams. (See page 18.) Three great families of Indians living east of the Mississippi River belonged to this second division, and were those with whom the white people first came into contact.

The semi-civilized Indians lived chiefly in the mountainous country from New Mexico southward as far as Chile. They tilled and irrigated the soil and built houses and forts four or five stories high. Their dwellings, frequently grouped in villages,



were called pueblos, and were sometimes built high up on cliffs for protection against attacks by the savage Indians.

5. Mounds. Many thousands of mounds built by the earliest inhabitants of America are found in the valleys of the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers. These mound-buildings are shaped like animals, temples, and forts. At one time it was thought that they were built by a mysterious and highly civilized race, because of the skill shown in the beautifully carved wooden dishes and other relics discovered in them. Later examination of these relics, however, has led to the belief that the "Mound Builders" were the ancestors of the Indians found in the country by Columbus and other early explorers.

Questions

1. How many centuries have passed since Europeans discovered the American Indian? Why were they called Indians?
2. Describe the dress and the home of the Indian. How was the work divided between the men and the women? Can you think of a good reason why the women should carry the wigwam when the family was traveling through the wilderness?
3. What idea did the missionary contribute to the Indian's religious belief?
4. Show on the map of the western hemisphere the territory occupied by savage Indians. By barbarous Indians. By semi-civilized Indians.
5. How were the mounds formed? Who built them? Show on the map where they have been found.

Theme Topics

1. Let some of the girls in the class imagine that they are Indian girls. Let them describe in a two-paragraph theme how they helped to move from one hunting-ground to another.
2. Let a number of boys in the class tell how Indian boys made weapons with which to hunt.

PERIOD OF DISCOVERIES AND EXPLORATIONS

CHAPTER II

TRADE IN THE OLD WORLD: DISCOVERY OF THE NEW WORLD

EUROPE SEEKS A ROUTE TO INDIA

6. The Northmen. The Northmen, who were the early inhabitants of Norway and Sweden, were probably the first Europeans to set foot on the American continent. These bold sea-rovers discovered and colonized Iceland, Greenland, and later on, the North American continent. Leif Ericson, one of these Northmen, about the year 1000 sailed along the coast of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and New England. There is a tradition that he found-

ed a colony somewhere on the coast. Finding wild grapes abundant, Ericson called the country Vinland.

These Northmen brought the Catholic faith with them and established churches and monasteries in Greenland. The discovery of America by the Northmen had no

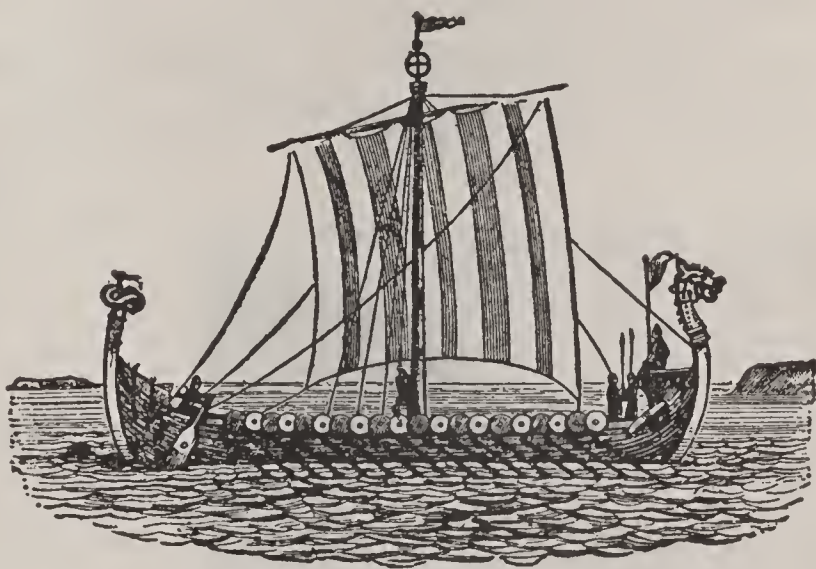
important results; the colonists who settled in Greenland died of a terrible pestilence known as the "black death," and knowledge of the route to the new continent was almost forgotten.



RUINS OF A NORSE CHURCH
IN GREENLAND

7. The Crusades. It was nearly five hundred years after the explorations of the Northmen before the New World was visited again by Europeans. We must know something about the conditions in Europe before we can understand how our country came to be discovered. Even previous to the discovery of America by the Northmen, the people of Europe had been carrying on trade with various countries in Asia, especially China and India. This trade increased rapidly after the Crusades (1095-1291). The Crusades were holy wars undertaken by Christian nations for the deliverance of the Holy Land, especially the sepulcher of our Lord, from the hands of the Turks. The Crusades brought the people of Europe to a closer knowledge of the eastern world.

8. A Great Traveler. About the time the Crusades ended, Marco Polo, a trader of Venice, wrote a book in which he described his travels in China and India. He gave



A VIKING SHIP

glowing accounts of the wealth of these countries and aroused much interest. His book, which confirmed the growing belief that there was an ocean east of Asia, was read by many men during the next three centuries, inspiring some of them to seek India by setting sail into the unknown sea.

9. Commercial Centers. For almost two hundred years after Marco Polo had written his book, European traders had no great need to find a new route to India. Genoa and Venice, two Italian cities that controlled the commerce between Europe and Asia, had become rich. Dyestuffs, spices, silks, precious stones,

and ivory were brought by ships and caravans from India, China, and Japan; and iron, tin, lead, grains, soap, and furs were given in exchange. There were three routes by which trading between the countries was carried on, the chief one passing through Constantinople. This trade continued to grow until 1453, when the Turks conquered Constantinople. From this time on, the Turks, who were Mohammedans and the enemies of the Christian nations of Europe, made trading between these nations and the eastern countries very difficult and expensive.

The traders of Genoa and Venice, recalling Marco Polo's belief, now began to study the problem of how to reach India by sea. If this could be done, a nearer and cheaper route to the rich products of the East would be assured.

10. The Earth a Globe. Most of the people at this time did not agree with the idea that the earth is a sphere; they thought that it was flat, surrounded by the oceans and the dome-like



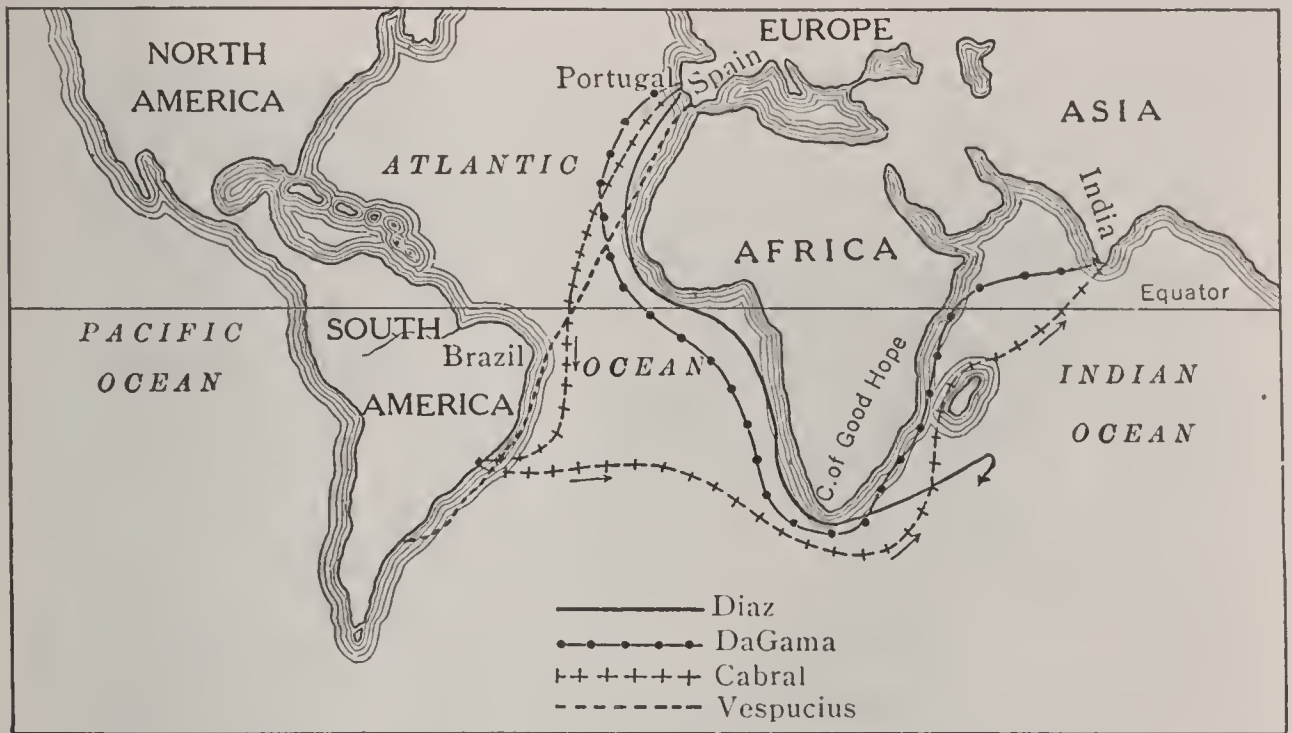
EARLY PRINTERS

heavens. The best-educated men, however, believed that the earth is a sphere. This theory which had been held by Aristotle, a famous Greek philosopher, three centuries before the Christian era, was preserved during the Middle Ages chiefly by the great monastic and secular scholars of the Catholic Church; for example, Cardinal D'Ailly, Roger Bacon, Prince Henry

of Portugal, Copernicus, Galileo, and Toscanelli.

11. Aids to Discovery. Brave men now began to explore the seas, chiefly trying to find a short route to India, but also expecting to discover new lands. Four inventions which had recently come into use did much to encourage exploration: (1) The compass pointed out to the sailor the direction in which he was

moving; (2) the astrolabe enabled him to tell his latitude; (3) the printing press spread abroad the knowledge of newly found lands, inspiring men to go into far countries in search of wealth and fame; and (4) gunpowder made easy the conquest of uncivilized peoples.



ROUTES AROUND AFRICA AND TO SOUTH AMERICA

12. Cape of Good Hope Reached. Prince Henry of Portugal, one of the most learned men of his time, wished to spread a knowledge of geography and to convert the heathen. He established a school of navigation, where students were taught by the wisest men of Europe. Through his efforts Portugal became the foremost country in searching for a waterway to the Indies around Africa. Beginning early in the fifteenth century, and continuing for seventy years, her vessels and seamen cautiously skirted the coasts of Africa. Finally, in 1487, Bartholomew Diaz, a Portuguese, completed a voyage from Lisbon along the African coast to the extreme southern point, which he called the Cape of Storms, and thence far into the Indian Ocean. The cape was renamed Cape of Good Hope by the monarch of Portugal.

COLUMBUS DISCOVERS AMERICA

13. The Great Adventurer. The successful voyages of Diaz and other early explorers led Christopher Columbus, an Italian seaman of Genoa, to plan a voyage for the discovery of a sea route to India. He had read Marco Polo's book of travel, and he believed that the earth is round. No man had yet been brave



DEPARTURE OF COLUMBUS (FROM AN OLD ENGRAVING)

enough to sail westward across the "Sea of Darkness," as the Atlantic Ocean was then called, for the voyage was considered very dangerous. Columbus himself had an incorrect idea of the real size of the earth, for he thought that by sailing three thousand miles directly west from the Canary Islands, he could reach India. His plan was to sail straight forward into the sea; all the explorers before this time had sailed close to the shores of Africa.

14. In Quest of Help. To carry out his plan Columbus needed the support of some government. He first tried to interest the King of Portugal in his proposed voyage, but receiving no encouragement, he turned to Spain. Here he learned that Ferdinand and Isabella, the Spanish King and Queen, could not help him, since Spain was then at war with the Moors. Soon afterwards, however, the Spanish armies defeated the Moors.



Nina

Santa Maria

Pinta

THE FLEET OF COLUMBUS

Then the Queen, guided by her confessor, Father Juan Perez, who was a friend of Columbus, called the navigator to her court and listened to his plea. Finally, Queen Isabella promised to aid Columbus, offering, if necessary, to sell her jewels to raise money for his plans. She thought that Columbus would be able to spread the Catholic religion among the heathen men of the East.

15. Columbus Prepares for the Voyage. Columbus went to Palos, Spain, to make preparations for the voyage. This was a difficult task, for even the most daring seamen shrank from join-

ing such an undertaking. But at length Columbus succeeded in fitting out three small ships manned with one hundred and twenty men, many of whom were forced into service by order of the King. Thus with the *Santa Maria*, the *Nina*, and the *Pinta*, filled for the most part with unwilling men, the world-finder was at last ready to begin his great western voyage.

Had it not been for his faithful Franciscan friend, Father Juan Perez, Columbus would probably have failed to secure the necessary number of men to fit out his expedition. Through the influence of this good Father, the Pinzon brothers, experienced sailors, agreed to accompany Columbus. The worthy priest also exerted great influence over the townspeople of Palos, going among them and inducing them to join in the expedition.

16. The Voyage. Columbus sailed from Palos on Friday, August 3, 1492, at 8 A. M. He steered straight into the trackless ocean, relying firmly on God and on his own scientific theory. This fact alone is sufficient to make him one of the most sublime figures in history. Before sailing, Columbus and his crew received the sacraments of Penance and the Holy Eucharist, and assisted at Holy Mass offered by Father Juan Perez in the monastery of Rabida. Columbus delayed for some weeks at the Canary Islands for the purpose of refitting his vessels. From here the little fleet sailed westward. Belts of calms, the variation of the magnetic needle of the compass, and other real or imaginary causes made the much-frightened crew ready for mutiny. They resolved to throw Columbus into the sea if he refused to return to Spain. Columbus, sustained by strength from on High, declared that nothing could turn him from his course. He succeeded in calming the fears of his men, and on Friday, October 12, 1492, land was sighted; immediately Columbus and his crew fell on their knees and chanted the *Te Deum*.

17. The Landing. The next morning at daybreak Columbus stepped on shore and, kneeling with his men, gave thanks to

God. He took possession of the land in the name of the Spanish sovereigns and called it San Salvador. He then solemnly planted a large cross, and he and his men chanted the *Vexilla Regis*.

Columbus cruised from island to island, discovered Cuba and Haiti, and left on the latter thirty-nine men to form a colony, which was soon destroyed by the natives. In the newly discovered lands, which he called West Indies because he thought he had reached India, Columbus found tobacco and the sweet potato, which he had never seen before.

Although we usually say that Columbus discovered America, he did not actually reach the mainland of the continent. San Salvador and the other islands that he discovered are several hundred miles from the coast of the American continent. (See map on page 41.)

18. Return Voyage. In January, 1493, Columbus set out on his return voyage with only the *Nina* and the *Pinta*, the *Santa Maria* having been wrecked on the island of Haiti. He took with him gold, cotton, native birds, strange plants and animals, and six Indians. After a stormy voyage he reached the harbor of Palos, on Friday, March 15, 1493. From Palos he went to Barcelona, where he was received with great ceremony by the king and queen. The Indians were instructed and baptized, Queen Isabella standing at the font of baptism as their god-mother.

19. Later Voyages of Columbus. Columbus made three more voyages to the New World, discovering the islands of Porto Rico, Jamaica, and Trinidad, as well as the continent of South America. He did not know that he had discovered a continent and wondered why he did not find Asia's riches.

On his second expedition Columbus took with him fifteen hundred Spaniards in seventeen vessels with necessary supplies. And now, with strict commands from the Queen to christianize the Indians and to treat them well, he brought the first missionaries, twelve in number, to America. Among them was the Vicar-Apostolic, Father Bernard Boyl, of the Order of St. Bene-

dict. The Holy Sacrifice of the Mass was offered for the first time on the shores of America by Father Juan Perez. Columbus founded the city of Isabella on the island of Haiti, and here in January, 1494, the first church was built and High Mass was solemnly celebrated on the sixth day of that month.

20. Immediate Results of the Voyages of Columbus. Columbus gave to Spain and the world a new continent, and the spirit of discovery was greatly increased. In less than forty-five years, the eastern coast of North and South America was fairly

well known; while, in the interior, great empires had been conquered.



LINE OF DEMARCATION

21. Line of Demarcation. Spain and Portugal, the Catholic powers of Europe, fearing that they might come into collision in the rapid progress of their discoveries, appealed to the common father of the faithful to mark out the limits of the new lands they expected to discover. The Pope, Alexander VI (1493), fixed what is known as the Line of Demarcation, extending from the north pole to the south

pole at a distance of one hundred leagues west of the Azores and the Cape Verde Islands. He decreed that all the lands discovered west of this line were to belong to Spain, those east to Portugal. A treaty between Spain and Portugal shortly afterwards fixed the line three hundred seventy leagues west of the Cape Verde Islands.

22. The New Route to India—Brazil Discovered. Vasco de Gama, a Portuguese, in 1497 sailed from Lisbon around the Cape of Good Hope to Hindustan, thus finding the long-searched-

for route to India. Upon his return to Portugal, there was no doubt as to where he had been, for his ships were laden with the riches of the East. The goal was reached at last.

In 1500 Pedro Cabral, a Portuguese navigator, on his way to India by way of the Cape of Good Hope, sighted the coast of Brazil.

23. The Origin of the Name America. Americus Vespucius, a citizen of Florence, skilled in geography and astronomy, sailed first in the employ of Spain (1499) and afterwards in that of Portugal. He made several voyages, including one which made known a large part of the Atlantic coast of South America. In 1507, a year after the death of Columbus, a German professor named Martin Waldseemüller, in a little treatise upon geography, commented upon the explorations of Vespucius, saying, "But now these parts have been extensively explored and another fourth part has been discovered by Americus Vespucius; therefore I do not see what is rightly to hinder us from calling it Amerige or America; i. e., the land of Americus, after its discoverer Americus." Eventually the name suggested by Waldseemüller was given to the whole western continent.



AMERICUS VESPUCIUS

Questions

1. Look at the map of the world and tell how far Leif Ericson had to sail from Norway in order to reach America. In what general direction were he and his men sailing? (Remember this, because we shall find the movement repeated again and again—Europeans moving west.)

2. Show on the map the location of the Holy Land. Trace the route taken by the throngs of Europeans who took part in the Crusades. Why did they undertake this dangerous journey? What new ideas did the returning Crusaders bring back to Europe? How did this knowledge affect trade? What articles had the East to sell to the West? What articles did the West have to exchange with the East?

3. Why did Europe in the fifteenth century begin to search for a water route to the East? Why do we remember Prince Henry of Portugal?
4. Trace on the map the voyage undertaken by Diaz in 1487. Why did the Portuguese call the cape at the southern part of Africa the Cape of Good Hope?
5. In the fifteenth century what shape did many people believe the earth to be? Did Columbus agree with this idea? How did he plan to reach the East by sea? What difficulties did he meet in undertaking to carry out his plan?
6. Describe his first voyage. Show on the map the lands he visited. Show on the map where he believed himself to be.
7. Describe his later voyages. Show on the map additional territory he discovered. Why do we call our country America?
8. What were the immediate results of Columbus's voyages?
9. Locate the Azores and the Cape Verde Islands. Show on the map the location of the Line of Demarcation. Why did Pope Alexander VI establish this line?
10. Trace on the map the voyage of Vasco de Gama to Hindustan. Why was this voyage important?

Theme Topics

1. Have two pupils give an imaginary conversation between Columbus and a frightened sailor on shipboard during the first voyage.
2. Describe the landing of Columbus in a short theme of one paragraph.
3. Columbus a Religious Man. (Read carefully the reference* to Father Higgins's story and choose the incidents from the story which show the great admiral to have been deeply religious. Be able to describe these incidents orally during the language period.)
4. The Adventures and Journeys of Marco Polo. (See the reference* to Southworth.)

* All references will be found on pages 485 and following.

CHAPTER III

THE SPANISH IN AMERICA

24. The First City—The First Spaniards in the United States. Spain, encouraged by the success of the Portuguese adventurers, continued to send out explorers. After the voyage of Americus Vesputius to South America, the people of Spain believed that a new continent had been found; they no longer cared about finding a route to India, but became interested in searching for the gold and riches they thought existed in the new lands.

Porto Rico, discovered by Columbus, had been settled by Spaniards. Ponce de Leon, the governor of the island, having heard stories from the Indians of a land rich in gold and containing a fountain of youth, began a vain search for it, during which he discovered Florida. Already, in 1511, he had founded San Juan, Porto Rico, the oldest city in the present United States territory. Two years later, on Easter Sunday, he planted a cross and raised the Spanish flag on the newly discovered territory, which he named Florida (Flowery Easter).

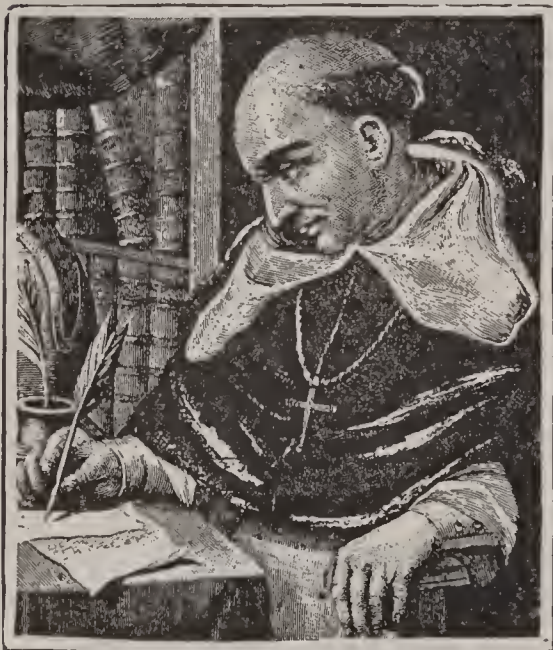


BALBOA

25. Discovery of the Pacific Ocean. Pushing through the rough lands and mountains near the Isthmus of Panama, Balboa, a Spanish adventurer, discovered the Pacific Ocean in 1513. He took possession of it and of all land bordering on it for Spain, naming the great body of water the South Sea.

26. The Conquest of Mexico. In 1519 Cortez was sent by the governor of Cuba to explore Mexico. He built a fort on a favorable point which he called Vera Cruz, and then pushed into the interior of the country. Here he overthrew the empire of the Aztec Indians, thus conquering Mexico, which, with its rich mines, became a Spanish province.

27. Bartholomew Las Casas (1474-1566). The bishop of Chiapa in Mexico, a Dominican missionary among the Indians, was the first priest ordained in America. The title "Protector General of the Indians" was given him for the untiring zeal with which he served them for sixty years.



BARTHOLOMEW LAS CASAS

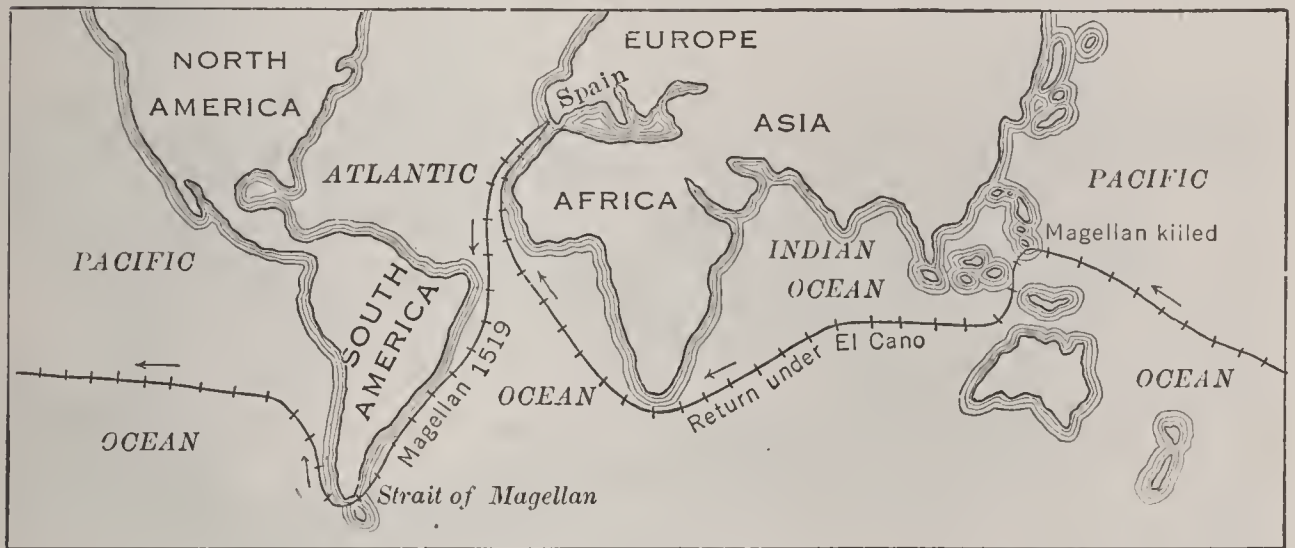
28. Circumnavigation of the Globe. Magellan, a Portuguese in the service of Spain, searching for a strait leading to the South Sea (Pacific Ocean), in 1519 sailed across the Atlantic, coasted along South America, passed through the strait now bearing his name, and sailed out upon the great ocean discovered by Balboa. He next struck westward and dis-

covered the Philippine Islands, where he was killed in an encounter with the natives. His companions made their way back to Spain around the Cape of Good Hope, thus completing the first circumnavigation of the globe (1519-1522).

29. Conquest of Peru (1531-1536). Francisco Pizarro conquered Peru, in South America, and founded the city of Lima. Peru was a rich empire inhabited by the Incas, who were the only shepherd Indians. They possessed great flocks of llamas, which looked like little camels and served as valuable beasts of burden. They also supplied wool used in weaving coarse cloth which even the Spanish ladies of rank were proud to wear. Never before in the history of the world had so much gold and

silver been discovered; vessels, utensils, images and beads of pure gold, and great planks and bars of solid silver were found.

30. The Attempted Conquest of Florida. In 1528 Narvaez led from Cuba an unsuccessful expedition of four hundred men to conquer Florida. The company perished; only four of the number survived to tell one of the saddest tales of history. One of the Franciscan missionaries, Father Juan Juarez, accompanied the unfortunate expedition and shared its fate. Cabeza de Vaca



MAGELLAN'S VOYAGE

and three companions, the only survivors, were made slaves by the Indians. In the course of eight years they wandered from Florida to the Gulf of California, over two thousand miles, suffering great dangers and tortures. In California Vaca found Spanish friends from Mexico.

31. Exploration of New Mexico and Arizona. Friar Marcos, an Italian Franciscan, was sent in 1539 by the viceroy of Mexico to find the "Seven Cities of Cibola." Hoping to find new tribes of Indians to convert, he discovered what is now New Mexico and Arizona. Directed by the Indians, he came at last in sight of the Zuni pueblos. Since he believed that the name of the city he saw was Cibola, he called the pueblos "The Seven Cities of Cibola." After planting a cross, he took possession of the wild region, which he called San Francisco, and claimed it for Spain.

Accompanied by Friar Marcos, Coronado (1540) explored the territory from the Gulf of California to the present state of Kansas. About the same time Hernando de Alarcon explored the region of the Colorado River.

32. Discovery of the Mississippi River. Fernando de Soto, governor of Cuba, landed at Tampa Bay, Florida, with nearly six hundred men, equipped for the conquest of a kingdom like



ZUNI PUEBLOS

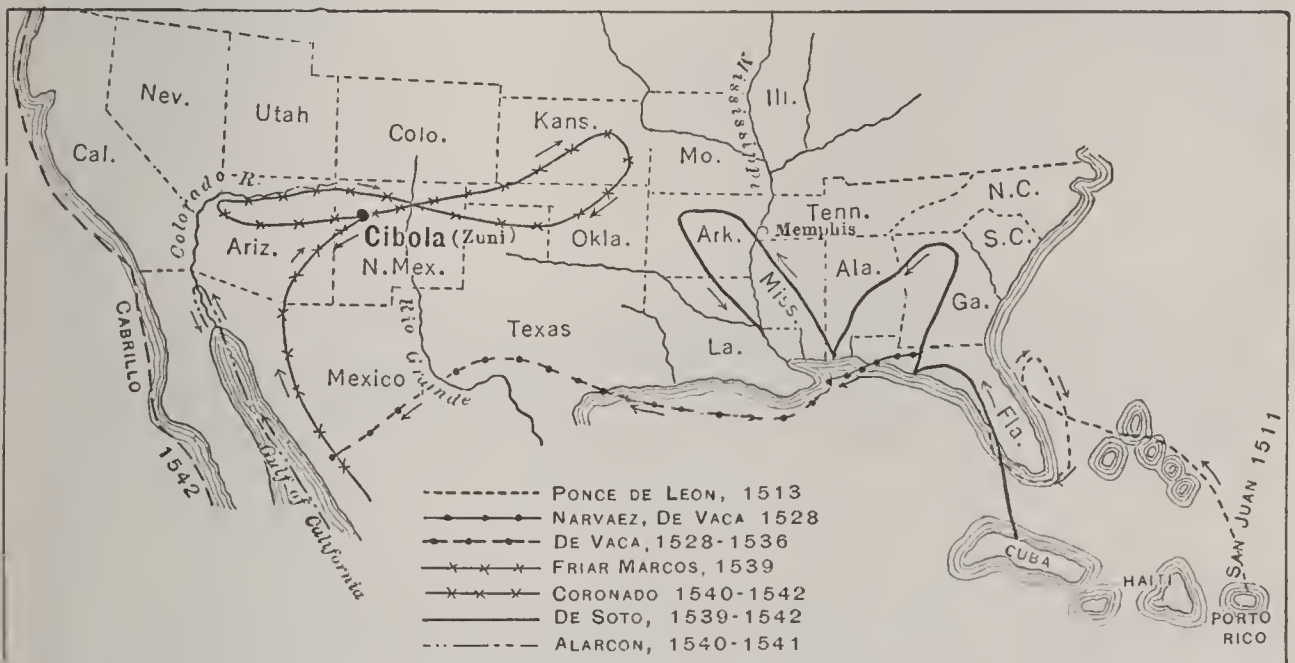
that of Peru or Mexico. He found no treasures, but discovered the Mississippi River at the present site of Memphis. De Soto died in 1542 and was buried in the great river he had discovered the year before.

33. Oldest Cities in the United States. Menendez founded St. Augustine in 1565, the oldest city within the present limits of the United States. He cruelly destroyed the little French Huguenot settlement, which was located north of St. Augustine. This deed was revenged shortly afterwards by the French adven-

turer, De Gourgues, who attacked St. Augustine and mercilessly slew the colonists.

Santa Fe, the second oldest white settlement in the United States, was established in 1605 by the Spaniards.

34. Spain and the New World. To Spain is due the discovery of the New World. Her teachers taught the Spanish language and Christian faith to thousands of the natives. There were Spanish schools for Indians in America as early as 1524. Many books in different Indian languages were printed by the Spanish in Mexico where a printing press was set up as early as 1536.



ROUTES OF EARLY SPANISH EXPLORERS

On the other hand, the only Indian book printed in America by the English was John Eliot's Indian Bible. A Spanish university in America was founded in 1551 and was almost ready to celebrate its first centennial when Harvard was founded (1636). A number were older than Harvard. A great proportion of the Spanish pioneers were educated men, and intelligence went hand in hand with heroism in the early settlement of the New World.

35. First Churches—First Convent. The first church in what is now the United States was founded at St. Augustine, Florida (1565); the second in New Mexico, near Santa Fe (1598); the

third at Santa Fe (about 1606); and the fourth also at Santa Fe (1627). The original walls of the church of San Miguel, which was built in Santa Fe in 1636, are still standing, forming a part of a church which is used today. The oldest convent in the United States is the historical institution of the Ursulines in New Orleans, established in 1727.

36. The Pioneer Missionaries. The missionaries were the pioneers not only of the cross and religion but also of civilization. Although they suffered untold hardships, they continued to preach



MISSION OF SAN JUAN CAPISTRANO

the Gospel to the Indians until eventually half the natives of the continent were converted to the Catholic faith. These pious men studied the language of the Indians and won their confidence. They taught them to read and write and to sow and reap.

The Benedictines, the Franciscans, the Dominicans, and the Jesuits all had a share in the conversion and civilization of the Indians, but the Franciscans were the Apostles of Spanish America. In spite of the wonderful work which they did among the Indians, many of these missionaries were cruelly martyred.

Questions

1. After learning that a new continent, not India, had been discovered, why was western Europe still interested in sending out explorers?

2. With what discovery is each of the following names connected: De Leon, Balboa, Cortez, Pizarro, Narvaez, Friar Marcos, De Soto?

3. Why is Magellan's voyage often considered the most remarkable in history? Trace the voyage on the map.

4. Why did Bishop Las Casas devote his life to the protection of the Indians? For what purpose were the explorers working among the Indians? For what purpose were the missionaries working among the Indians?

5. Locate St. Augustine. Locate Santa Fe. To what nation did Menendez belong? To what nation did De Gourgues belong? Why did Menendez destroy the French settlement? Why did De Gourgues destroy the Spanish settlement?

6. During the sixteenth century what educational work did the Spanish accomplish in South America? How does this compare with work that had been done in North America? Why were the Spanish so far ahead? If you do not know, keep the problem in mind until you begin to study the colonization of North America.

Theme Topics

1. Describe the death of Magellan.

2. Describe the burial of De Soto.

3. Balboa Taking Possession of the Pacific Ocean. (See reference* to Father Higgins's book.)

4. Bishop Las Casas, Protector of the Indians. Tell the story orally during the language period. (See reference* to Father Higgins's book.)

* All references will be found on pages 485 and following.

CHAPTER IV

THE ENGLISH IN 'AMERICA

37. English Explorations. England was finally stirred to activity by the discoveries of her rivals, Spain and Portugal. In 1497 King Henry VII of England sent out John Cabot to find a northwest passage to India. Cabot sailed west from England and discovered the mainland of North America, which he claimed in the name of the English King. Later he made another voyage, probably accompanied by his son, Sebastian. This time he explored the coast of North America from Nova Scotia to North Carolina. England's claims in America were based upon these discoveries.



SEBASTIAN CABOT

38. Second Circumnavigation of the Globe. Sir Francis Drake set out from England in 1577 with a fleet of five vessels and sailed through the strait discovered by Magellan fifty years before. He followed the Pacific coast as far north as the present state of Oregon, crossed the Pacific, and passed the Philippine Islands. Making his way across the Indian Ocean, around the Cape of

Good Hope, he finally reached England in 1580, having sailed entirely around the world.

39. Motives for Explorations—Attempts at Colonization. The explorations of Cabot, Drake, and some other early English adventurers, were not made to found colonies in the New World,

but to establish stopping places for future voyages to Asia, as well as stations from which Spanish treasure ships might be plundered.

Later on, however, when Elizabeth became Queen of England, her advisers wanted her to send out explorers to discover lands that might be settled by Englishmen. These men wanted to establish colonies that would add riches to the kingdom.

At this time England had become the most powerful nation

in the world, outstripping Spain and Portugal. Her commerce was growing rapidly, and she had built up a great navy.

In order to establish a colony in America, Sir Humphrey Gilbert made several voyages across the Atlantic, all of which were failures. The last of these attempts, made in 1583,



DRAKE'S SHIP

ended in Gilbert's death; on his return voyage from Newfoundland his ship was wrecked in mid-ocean, and he and his entire crew were drowned.

40. Raleigh's Expeditions. Sir Walter Raleigh, the half-brother of Gilbert, sent exploring expeditions to America, although he himself never landed on American soil. One of the expeditions explored Albemarle and Pamlico Sounds, and Roanoke Island. The explorers returned to England with such glowing accounts of the lands they had seen that Queen Elizabeth called the new country Virginia, in honor of herself, the "Virgin Queen."

Raleigh next sent out a company of men who established a colony on Roanoke Island. The colonists spent their time

searching for gold and for a northwest passage. Soon their provisions were exhausted and they went back to England with Sir Francis Drake, who was returning from one of his explorations.

The last attempt of Raleigh to establish a colony in America was made on Roanoke Island under John White, who, soon after his arrival, was compelled to return to England for supplies. There he found the whole kingdom preparing for the attack of the Invincible Armada, as the great Spanish navy was called. Three years passed before White was able to return to America. When he did return, he found that the colonists had disappeared, leaving only the word "Croatan" cut on a tree. No other trace was ever found.



AN INDIAN VILLAGE

Raleigh was not able to establish a successful colony in America, but his work was important. He led the people of England to look upon the New World as a place where permanent homes might be established.

41. The Invincible Armada. Although Spain's power was gradually declining, she had been able to build up a great fleet, the Invincible Armada, referred to just above. In 1567 the Netherlands, which had become a part of Spain's territory, revolted, and England helped her to gain her independence.

Because of this act, the Spanish king, Philip II, sent out the Armada against England. There followed a great sea battle in which the Invincible Armada was defeated by the English seamen. From this time on the English navy was supreme.

42. First Englishman in New England. Bartholomew Gosnold (1602) by sailing directly west, shortened the route across the Atlantic by more than one thousand five hundred miles. He explored the Massachusetts coast; named Cape Cod and Martha's Vineyard; and attempted to make a settlement at the entrance of Buzzard's Bay.

43. London and Plymouth Companies. In 1606 a number of merchants and adventurers organized a company for the purpose of colonizing America. A charter was granted by King James I to the company, which consisted of two divisions, the London Company, located at London, and the Plymouth Company of Plymouth. The first was given the land between 34° and 41° north latitude; the second was given the land between 38° and 45° north latitude, the grant of each company extending one hundred miles inland. Later the grant to the London Company was increased so as to extend "from sea to sea, West and Northwest." The charter granted to the colonists all the rights and privileges of citizens living in England.

Questions

1. What did England hope to discover through John Cabot's voyages? What did Cabot find? Trace his voyages upon the map. Of what importance were they? When was the first voyage made?

2. How much later than Magellan was Sir Francis Drake? Trace his voyage. As Drake made his journey around South America he robbed and burned Spanish settlements all along each coast. When he returned to England he had shiploads of gold and silver from the plundered settlements. What effect do you think this English voyage had upon Spain? Do you see any connection between this plundering upon the part of England and the defeat of the Armada as described in Section 41?

3. What effect did the destruction of the Armada have upon England's exploration and colonization of North America? Compare the exploration and colonization of Spain and England up to this time.

4. Describe Sir Walter Raleigh's work. Of what importance was it? Describe the work of Gosnold. Of what importance was it?
5. What were the London and Plymouth Companies? What land was given to each of them?

Theme Topics

1. Tell what the King of Spain said when he heard of Drake's expedition.
2. Give an imaginary account of what happened to Raleigh's lost colony.
3. Write a short theme of two paragraphs on "Raleigh on a Visit to an American City of Today."

CHAPTER V

THE FRENCH IN AMERICA

44. French Explorations. Stories of the vast riches that the Spanish ships carried back to Spain from Mexico and South America aroused great enthusiasm in France for exploration. In 1524 Francis I, King of France, sent Giovanni Verrazano to search for a passage to India. He explored the American coast from Cape Fear to Nova Scotia. Ten years later, James Cartier discovered the St. Lawrence River. He sailed up the river past the great rock on which Quebec now stands, going as far as an Indian village which he called Montreal. Upon these explorations France based her claims in America. Attempts were made to colonize this region, but they were unsuccessful.

45. First Permanent French Settlement. Although the French explorers discovered many parts of the country and its rivers, no permanent settlement was made until 1608. In this year Samuel de Champlain, the most prominent figure in French exploration and early colonization, seeing the possibility of gaining great wealth from the fur trade and the discovery of gold, and hoping to convert the Indians to the Catholic faith, established a trading post at Quebec, which was the first permanent French settlement in America. Champlain may justly be called the "Founder of Canada."

46. Champlain's Explorations—His Encounter with the Iroquois. Champlain explored our northeast coast, discovered Lake Champlain (1609) and Lakes Ontario and Huron. He made friends with the neighboring Huron and Algonquin Indians, who were the enemies of the Iroquois Nations located in New York and about Lake Erie.

In 1609 Champlain joined the Hurons and Algonquins in a battle against the Mohawks, one of the Iroquois tribes. The Mohawks were defeated, but the Iroquois became the enemies of the French, preventing them from occupying New York and the Hudson Valley. Because of this enmity, the French were obliged to extend their settlements westward instead of toward the south.

47. The First Missionaries in Quebec. Three Franciscan priests and one lay brother came to Canada at the invitation



QUEBEC TODAY

of Champlain. The Jesuits joined the Franciscans in 1625, and the two orders labored for the conversion of the American Red Man. A little convent and chapel were erected at Quebec, and Holy Mass was for the first time celebrated on the banks of the St. Lawrence, June 25, 1615. This was the beginning of Catholicity in Canada.

48. Exploration of the Mississippi. Count Frontenac, governor of New France, was anxious to explore the still unknown regions and to bring about peace with the Iroquois Indians. He sent Father Marquette, a Jesuit missionary, and Joliet, a French explorer and fur trader, to search for a passage to the South Sea. Joliet started from Quebec in 1673 and, joined by Father

Marquette and several other Frenchmen at Mackinac, made his way through Green Bay, up the Fox River, and down the Wisconsin and the Mississippi as far as the Arkansas River. At the mouth of this river he and his companions became convinced that it would not carry them to the Pacific, and they retraced their course by way of the Illinois. After spending some time at the mission of St. Francis Xavier, Green Bay, Joliet returned to Quebec to report to Frontenac.



TADOUSAC, CANADA. FATHER MARQUETTE LABORED HERE MANY YEARS

Father Marquette preached the Gospel to the Miamis, who lived near the present site of Chicago. He named the Mississippi (so-called by the Indians) the River of the Immaculate Conception.

49. Results of the Discovery of the Mississippi. Father Marquette, by his long voyage, revealed to the world the fact that the St. Lawrence communicates with the Gulf of Mexico by an almost uninterrupted chain of lakes and rivers. The whole Mississippi Valley, the richest, most fertile, and most easily reached part of North America, was open to France.

50. Further Explorations. Robert La Salle, second only to Champlain among the French explorers, a sincere Catholic, set out from Canada to complete the work of Father Marquette

and Joliet. His aims were (a) to establish military and trade centers at various points, and (b) to plant a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi River. This would give the French control of the valuable fur trade of the interior.

La Salle discovered the Ohio River in 1669, and established Fort Frontenac on Lake Ontario two years later. From here he made a series of explorations which lasted nearly ten years. He built and launched on the Niagara River, the *Griffin*, which



FRENCH EXPLORERS AND THE INDIANS

was the first vessel to sail upon the waters of the Great Lakes. Accompanied by a small band including three Franciscan priests, he navigated Lakes Erie, St. Clair, Huron, and Michigan. From Lake Michigan he made his way to the Illinois River, where he established a fort near the present site of Peoria.

In 1682 La Salle floated down the Mississippi to its mouth, planted the cross, and took possession of the great central valley of the continent for France, naming it Louisiana in honor of Louis XIV. Two years later he attempted to plant a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi, but failing to find the river, he landed on the shores of Texas. While trying to reach Canada to secure aid, he was killed by a member of his own company.

52. The Missionary Pioneers. The Catholic missionaries in French America, like those in Spanish America, were the pioneers of the cross, of exploration, of colonization, and of civilization. The Franciscan and Jesuit missionaries made their way to the Indian tribes of Canada, Maine, New York, Ohio, Michigan, Illinois, Minnesota, and Iowa, never pausing in spite of snows and frost and other hardships of the wilderness till Catholicity had made the circuit of New France from the



THE MISSIONARY'S BLESSING

estuary of the St. Lawrence to the mouth of the Mississippi. Many of the early missionaries were cruelly murdered by the Indians. Their numbers were thinned by hardships, tortures, and agonizing deaths, but other great souls pressed forward to take up the good work of those who had gone before.

Father Druillettes, S. J. (1646), the Apostle of the Hurons, completely won the hearts of the Abnakis. Father Rasle, S. J., with seven of his Abnaki chiefs, was killed (1724) at the mission cross by a band of English and their allied pagan Mohawks. After the murder of Father Rasle, the Puritans would not allow a Catholic priest to live among the Abnakis. Nevertheless, these Indians remained firm in their faith. Every Sunday,

before the priestless altars, the words of the Mass were said, vespers were chanted, and parents baptized their children. The Abnakis fought in the army of Washington years later and were then distinguished for their bravery.

Father Marquette, S. J., was the first to labor among the Ottawas on the south shore of Lake Superior. He next preached to the Hurons of Mackinac. After his exploration of the Mississippi, he founded a mission at Kaskaskia, Illinois. Conscious that death was near, he attempted to return to Mackinac, but died in the thirty-eighth year of his life (1675), on the shores of a small river of Michigan which now bears his name. He was buried near where he died, but twelve years later his body was exhumed and interred beneath the church at Mackinac.



FATHER ISAAC JOGUES

The Indians frequently came to pray at his tomb, and French mariners never failed to invoke Father Marquette when they were in peril on Lake Michigan.

Father Jogues, S. J., entered the Jesuit novitiate at Paris at the age of seventeen and immediately after his ordination in 1636, he was sent, at his own request, to the Huron missions in Canada. He was captured by the Mohawks who carried him to New York, where he

was subjected to all the horrors of Indian cruelty. At length Father Jogues escaped, and from New York he was taken to France, where he was received with great honor. Later he returned to Canada, and once more entering New York was martyred by the Mohawks (1646).

Father Breboeuf, S. J., and Father Lallemand, S. J., also labored among the Huron Indians. They were seized by the Iroquois and cruelly tortured.

Father Daniel, S. J., while laboring among the Hurons, was killed by the Iroquois. Father Menard, S. J., worked among the Ottawas. He was lost in the forests and never again heard from. Father Allouez, S. J., joined Fathers Marquette and Dablon in founding St. Mary's, the oldest city in Michigan, and in spreading Catholicity in the vast regions that extend from Green Bay to Lake Superior.

53. Noted Indian Converts. The hardships, tortures, and deaths of the early missionaries were not suffered in vain, for vast numbers from every tribe of Indians were won over for Christ and civilization. Even the fierce Iroquois finally yielded to the influences of faith. Garacontie, their great chief, was baptized in the Cathedral of Quebec. Kryn, the powerful chief of the Mohawks, became a devout Catholic.

Catherine Tekawitha, whose grave became an object of veneration for every race, was one of the most notable Indian converts. Becoming an orphan at an early age, she lived with an uncle who was hostile toward the missionaries. She was secretly baptized, and gave her life entirely to God. She fled from her uncle's anger to La Prairie, where, after leading a saintly life, she died with the holy names of Jesus and Mary upon her lips. She has been called the "Lily of the Mohawks." Steps have recently been taken to canonize her.



LILY OF THE MOHAWKS

54. The Missionaries, the Pioneers of Discovery, Exploration, and Civilization. The missionaries were the first white men to sail on our great rivers and lakes, to admire our mighty

falls and rapids, and to enter our majestic forests. A Jesuit discovered the salt springs of New York; a Franciscan drew attention to the oil springs of Pennsylvania; a Jesuit lay brother first worked the copper mines on Lake Superior; the first sugar cane was raised by Jesuits in New Orleans. The missionaries introduced the cultivation of wheat and the use of the plow. They founded the first schools and the first college (Quebec, 1635), and set up the first printing press in the North.

The pioneer missionaries wrote descriptions of all they had seen and experienced and sent them to their superiors in France. This remarkable series of letters has been collected into seventy-five volumes called the "Jesuit Relations," of which there is an English translation.

55. First Nuns in New France. The hospital nuns from Dieppe opened a public hospital at Quebec. They received into it not only the sufferers among the emigrants, but the maimed, the sick, and the blind from the numerous tribes between the Kennebec and the St. Lawrence. The Ursuline nuns came to Quebec (1639) and established a convent into which they received the daughters of the wilderness for religious and secular instruction. From these small beginnings started the parochial and hospital systems so creditable to the Church in the United States.

56. Devotion to the Blessed Virgin Mary in North America. The early Spanish explorers came with the banner of Mary; the name of the ship of Columbus was *St. Mary* (Santa Maria); the earliest shrines were reared under her invocation; bay and river and mountain received the hallowed name; the first city on the mainland that became a bishop's see was St. Mary's. Montreal Island saw a city rise with the name of Ville Marie. As the missionaries made their way westward, veneration of Mary marked their path till the great Mississippi, the River of the Immaculate Conception, bore them down toward those

Spanish realms where every officer swore to defend the Immaculate Conception.

Questions

1. What explorers did France send to the New World? Of what importance were their explorations?
2. What were the aims of Samuel de Champlain? Contrast with the aims of Sir Walter Raleigh.
3. Did the French or the English win the friendship of the Mohawks? How did this affect the efforts of France and England to gain control of America?
4. Describe the coming to Canada of the first missionaries.
5. Trace on the map the journey of Father Marquette and Louis Joliet. Of what importance was it? You remember that a Spaniard first discovered the Mississippi River; what was his name? How much time passed between his discovery and the explorations? Why was the work of the Spaniards almost forgotten by the time the French began their work in these regions?
6. Draw a map showing the great journey that La Salle made. Describe his journey. Of what importance was it? How would these French explorations affect the English?
7. What was Father Hennepin's work?
8. Tell the story of the Missionary Pioneers. Who were some of the noted Indian converts?
9. Of what importance was the work of the nuns? Show on the map the city from which they came.

Theme Topics

1. Describe the death of Father Marquette.
2. Imagine that you were present when La Salle took possession of all the land drained by the Mississippi River. Let several of the pupils dramatize the scene.

CHAPTER VI

THE DUTCH IN AMERICA

57. Dutch Maritime Enterprise. While Spain, England, and France were exploring and colonizing America, Holland was occupied with trade and commerce. The Dutch, who were the merchants for all the neighboring countries, sent out fleets to the East Indies, which brought back the products of the tropics. Various trading companies had been organized for this purpose, the most important of which was the Dutch East India Company (1602). This company sent its navigators not only around the Cape of Good Hope, but also across the Pacific to Australasia.



HUDSON'S SHIP, THE HALF MOON

Henry Hudson, an Englishman in the service of Holland, was sent by the Dutch East India Company, in 1609, to search for a northern route around Europe. In a vessel called the *Half Moon*, he sailed from Amsterdam, and, after a voyage of four months, reached America. He entered the present New York harbor, where he believed that he had found the passage through America to the Pacific. He sailed up the river which now bears his name, as far as the site of Albany, making friends with the Iroquois. At almost the same time, Champlain, not a hundred miles away, made deadly enemies of these same Indians.

Hudson, who had hoped to reach China, considered his voyage a failure and determined to attempt to go north of America to Asia. This time (1610), he passed through the entire length of what is now Hudson Strait and entered the broad waters of Hudson Bay, where his crew, frightened by the Arctic cold and ice, rose in mutiny. They set their great captain and his seven-year-old son adrift in an open boat on the vast waters of Hudson Bay, leaving them there to perish.



THE TRADING POST AT NEW AMSTERDAM

58. Results of Hudson's Voyage. When Hudson returned to Holland, he reported that the new country was rich in fur-bearing animals. As early as 1613-1614, Dutch traders came to America and established trading posts at the present sites of New York and Albany. The post on the site of New York was called New Amsterdam. As a result of these early explorations, the Dutch claimed the land extending between the Delaware and Connecticut Rivers, which they called New Nether-

land. Later the Dutch West India Company was founded for the purpose of trade and colonization in America.

Questions

1. What European country is the homeland of the Dutch? For what were the Dutch seeking when they came upon the Hudson River? Trace on the map the journey of the *Half Moon*. What advantage did the Dutch gain by winning the friendship of the Iroquois?
2. Show on the map the land claimed in North America because of the explorations of Henry Hudson.
3. What was the purpose of the Dutch West India Company? What similar companies had been formed previously?

Theme Topics

1. A conversation between a Dutch fur trader and an Indian.
2. An imaginary account of a conversation between Hudson and his son in the open boat.

CHRONOLOGICAL REVIEW

1000–1492

- 1002. Leif Ericson discovers America and establishes a Norse colony in Vinland.
- 1095. The Crusades begin.
- 1295. Marco Polo describes his travels in the East.
- 1435. Columbus is born.
- 1440. Printing is invented by Gutenberg at Strassburg.
- 1487. Bartholomew Diaz discovers the Cape of Good Hope.

1492–1519

Ferdinand and Isabella are King and Queen of Spain.
Henry VII, King of England. (Henry VIII, 1509.)
All civilized Europe is Catholic.

- 1492. (Aug. 3) Columbus sails from Spain.
- 1492. (Oct. 12) Columbus discovers America.
- 1493. Columbus makes a second voyage—discovers Jamaica and Porto Rico, and establishes a Spanish colony at Isabella, Haiti.
- 1493. Father Juan Perez offers the first Holy Sacrifice of the Mass in America at Isabella, Haiti.
- 1493. Pope Alexander VI establishes the line of Demarcation.
- 1494. The first Catholic church is founded at Isabella, Haiti.
- 1497. Cabot discovers North America.
- 1497. Vasco da Gama doubles the Cape of Good Hope and finds a new route to India.
- 1498. Columbus makes his third voyage—discovers Trinidad Island and the continent of South America.
- 1498. Cabot makes his second voyage and explores part of the North American coast.

- 1500. Cabral discovers Brazil and claims it for Portugal.
- 1500. Americus Vesputius explores the northeastern coast of South America.
- 1502. Las Casas comes to America.
- 1511. Ponce de Leon founds San Juan, Porto Rico.
- 1513. Ponce de Leon discovers and claims the peninsula of Florida for Spain.
- 1513. Balboa discovers the Pacific Ocean and claims it and the land bordering on it for Spain.

1519-1558

Emperor Charles V, ruler of Germany, Austria, Spain, and Spanish America.

King Henry VIII, King Edward VI, and Queen Mary reign in England.

King Francis I and Henry II rule in France.

Luther apostatizes. Henry VIII rejects the authority of the pope and establishes a state church. Calvin founds Calvinism. Many people leave the Roman Catholic Church and become Protestants.

- 1519. Cortez conquers Mexico.
- 1519-1522. Magellan circumnavigates the globe.
- 1524. Verrazano coasts the American shore from Cape Fear to Nova Scotia and claims it for France.
- 1528. Narvaez leads an unsuccessful expedition to conquer Florida. Bishop Juarez and his companions perish.
- 1528-1536. De Vaca and his companions cross the continent.
- 1534-1535. Cartier discovers the St. Lawrence River.
- 1536. First printing press in the New World is set up.
- 1539. Friar Marcos discovers the Zuni pueblos.
- 1540. Coronado explores the territory from the Gulf of California to the present state of Kansas.
- 1541. De Soto discovers the Mississippi River.
- 1549. Missionaries receive the crown of martyrdom in Florida—the first martyrs within the limits of the present United States.

1558-1607

Queen Elizabeth and James I reign in England.

Francis II, Charles IX, Henry III, and Henry IV reign in France.

Philip II and Philip III reign in Spain.

The principal countries of Europe are involved in religious and political wars.

- 1565. Menendez founds St. Augustine, the oldest city in the United States proper.
- 1577-1580. Sir Francis Drake circumnavigates the globe.
- 1583. Sir Humphrey Gilbert attempts to plant a colony in America, but fails and is shipwrecked on his homeward voyage.
- 1584-1587. Sir Walter Raleigh sends three expeditions to the New World; he gives glowing accounts of the country and its people.
- 1602. Gosnold shortens the route across the Atlantic by more than 1500 miles.
- 1603. Champlain explores the shores of Nova Scotia.
- 1605. Santa Fe, New Mexico, the second oldest city in the United States proper, is founded.
- 1606. The London and Plymouth Companies are chartered.

PERIOD OF COLONIZATION

CHAPTER VII

THE SOUTHERN GROUP OF COLONIES

THE SETTLEMENT OF VIRGINIA

59. The Founding of Jamestown. The first permanent English colony in America was founded in 1607, at Jamestown, Virginia, by an expedition sent out by the London Company. The settlers, one hundred five men, were, for the most part, idle and lawless. Some of them were "gentlemen" whose aim was to gather wealth in the New World and then to return to England. The others were tradesmen and mechanics. There were no women in the colony, for these men did not come to make homes, but to search for gold.

The settlers reached Virginia in May, landing about thirty miles above the mouth of the James River. As a protection against the Indians, they immediately built a fort, and for homes they built log cabins. The conditions surrounding the colony were unfavorable—the land was low and swampy; the water was bad; the heat was intense; and the Indians were hostile. There was no great leader, and the plan under which the colony was founded almost led to its ruin. This plan provided that all the men were to work together and put their products into a common storehouse, out of which the needs of each one were supplied. Under this system the idle could draw from the common storehouse without labor, while the industrious knew that by their toil they must feed the idle.

The colony suffered greatly; the provisions gave out, many of the men became sick of fever, and within four months half

of the colony had died. Those remaining became discouraged and homesick.

60. John Smith Saves the Colony—His Explorations. Direction of the affairs of the colony gradually fell into the hands of John Smith, a bold and determined man. Smith compelled the men to work, saying, "He who will not labor shall not eat." He obtained food from the Indians for the starving settlers and introduced the cultivation of corn. He drilled the men, repaired the forts, and for two years was the mainstay of the Jamestown colony, which he saved from ruin.

While governor of Virginia, Smith made a series of explorations up Chesapeake Bay and the rivers flowing into it, hoping to find a passage to the Pacific. In the course of his explorations, Smith was captured by the Indians, and is said to have escaped death by means of his quick wit and through the help of the Indian princess Pocahontas. This princess, the daughter of the great Indian chief Powhatan, often visited Jamestown and became the loyal friend of the colony.

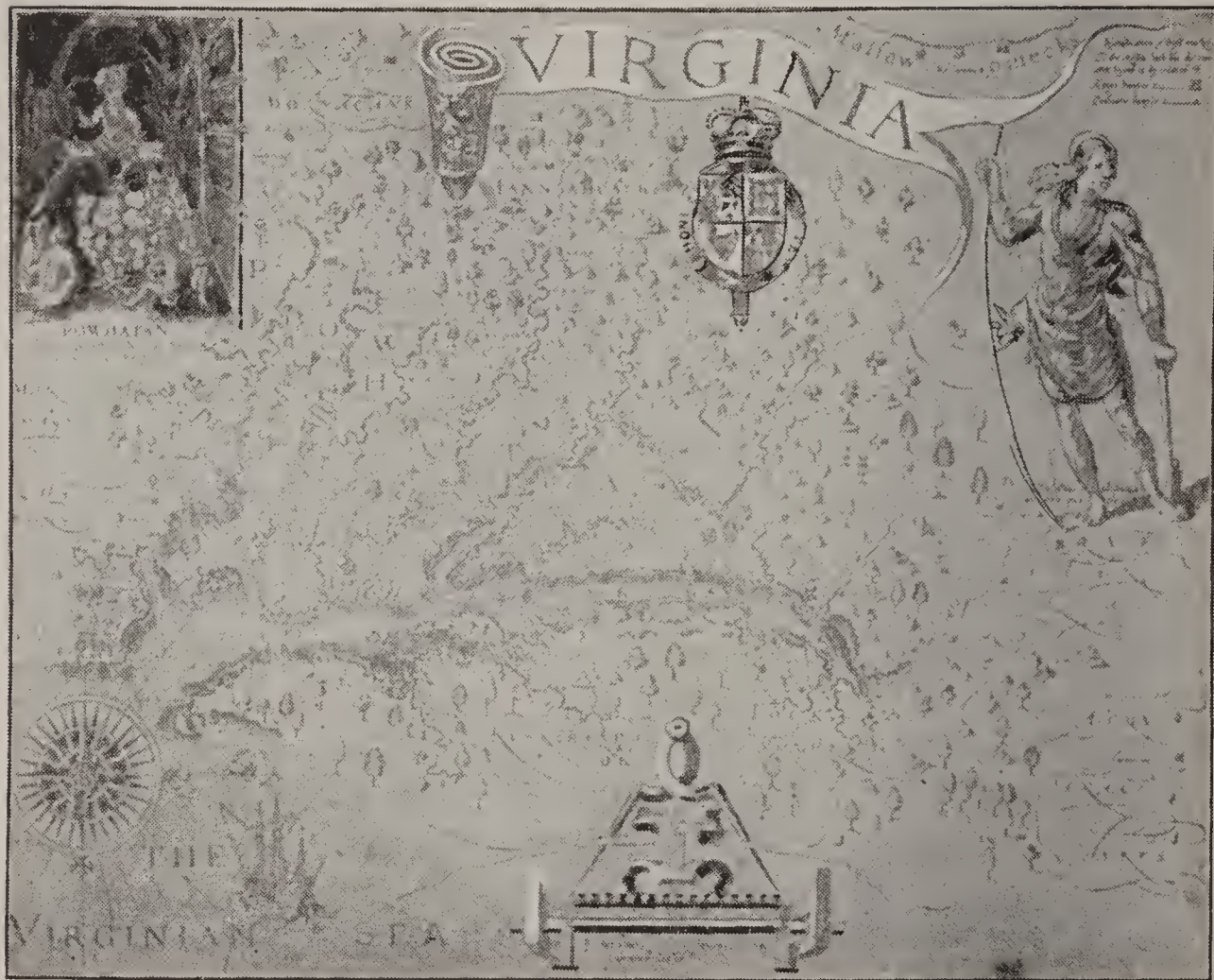
Later she and John Rolfe, a Virginia planter, were married. Rolfe took Pocahontas with him to England, where she was kindly welcomed, being called "Lady Rebecca." When she was about to return to the New World, she died, leaving an only son, Thomas, from whom descended the famous orator and statesman, John Randolph, and other leading Virginians.

61. The Starving Time. Two years after the founding of Jamestown, another band of nearly five hundred settlers came to Virginia. It was composed chiefly of men who had been prisoners in English jails and ruffians of the streets. Because of an injury, Smith went back to England. The Indians at once



JAMESTOWN AND VICINITY

attacked and plundered the colony. Crime, famine, and disease hastened the work of destruction, so that at the end of the dreadful winter (1609-1610), known as "the starving time," scarcely sixty of the colony of nearly five hundred were left alive. Lord Delaware, the newly appointed governor, came to Jamestown



CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH'S MAP OF VIRGINIA

(June, 1610) just in time to prevent the few remaining men from setting sail for England. Ill health, however, obliged him to leave Jamestown the following March.

62. Common Storehouse Abolished—Cultivation of Tobacco. Sir Thomas Dale, who succeeded Lord Delaware in 1611, was an able ruler. During the course of the next five years he introduced order and new energy into the affairs of the colony by abolishing the common storehouse. Now even the indolent

began to think it worth while to work. The men who stole and defied the law were hanged without mercy. Later, each settler was permitted to buy one hundred acres of land, and each farmer was obliged to give two and one-half bushels of corn to the public granary.

Raleigh had introduced tobacco into England, and its use soon spread so that a great demand for it arose in Europe. The people of Virginia, finding the soil well adapted to its cultivation, began to raise it in large quantities, and the future of Virginia was assured.

63. Indentured Servants—Negro Slaves. To satisfy the great demand for cheap labor, convicts and criminals from the overcrowded prisons in England, kidnapped children, and English people who had fallen into debt, were sold to Virginia. These "Indentured Servants" were bound out to labor for a term of years (five to seven and upwards), after which they were set free.

In 1619 the captain of a Dutch vessel sold twenty negroes to the colonists. As their labor proved profitable in the cultivation of tobacco, many more were imported. Thus were sown the seeds of slavery which continued until the period of the great Civil War.

64. First Representative Assembly in America. Up to this time the affairs of the colony had been under the control of a governor appointed by the London Company. The people had been given no share in the government. Now, however, the settlers asked for a voice in the making of their laws. A new governor was appointed, and under his direction a representative assembly was held in 1619. This assembly was composed of two representatives from each of the eleven districts. Since these districts were known as boroughs, the assembly was called the "House of Burgesses." The government was now composed of a governor, a council, and the House of Burgesses, being modeled after the English government, which consists of the King, House of Lords, and House of Commons. This three-fold division furnished a basis for our present state and national governments.

65. Family Ties. About one hundred young women of good reputation were persuaded by the London Company to go to Virginia, where they were sold to the planters as wives at the cost of their passage (one hundred fifty pounds of tobacco). Family life now found a place in Virginia, and the people became prosperous and contented.



THE ARRIVAL OF THE WOMEN IN VIRGINIA

66. Virginia Becomes a Royal Colony. In 1622 a war occurred between the colonists and the Indians, who were led by the brother of Powhatan, the Indian chief. This war, together with famine and sickness, reduced the number of colonists from four thousand to eight hundred ninety-four. King James I charged the London Company with failure to protect its colonists. He withdrew the charter, and Virginia became a royal colony, remaining so until the Revolution. The House of Burgesses, however, continued to exist throughout the colonial period.

67. A Better Class of People. In 1625 Charles I succeeded his father, James I, as King of England. During his reign a great

civil and religious war was waged between the King and Parliament. King Charles was defeated and beheaded (1649) by the Puritans or "Roundheads," as the supporters of Parliament were called. Cromwell, the leader of the Puritans, ruled England during the next eleven years, under a form of government known as the Commonwealth. The Cavaliers, who were the friends and supporters of King Charles, were persecuted during the reign of Cromwell, and many of them fled to Virginia, where they became planters of great influence, giving to the colony an aristocratic character.

During this same period, many Catholics of Ireland, persecuted for patriotism and religion, were sold into forced service to the American planters. A large number of poor but respectable persons sold themselves in order to secure a new start in life.

68. The Navigation Acts. During the Commonwealth, Parliament passed the Navigation Acts, which required the people of Virginia to send their tobacco and other exports to England in English ships. By these laws the revenue of England was greatly increased, but the trade of Virginia was nearly ruined. As a result, the colonists were discouraged and embittered against the mother country.

69. Berkeley's Hard Rule—Bacon's Rebellion. In 1660 the Commonwealth of England was overthrown, and Charles II became King. Sir William Berkeley, for the second time, was made governor of Virginia. He was a man of ability, and a strong upholder of the King, but he was narrow-minded, dishonest, and oppressive. He did not believe in popular government, and was hostile to education.

When an Indian war broke out on the borders of Maryland, Berkeley refused to defend the colony for fear that his fur trade with the natives might suffer. Thereupon, Nathaniel Bacon, a young lawyer, raised a force and defeated the enemy. Because of this action, the governor pronounced him a traitor. The people, however, so disliked Berkeley and the aristocratic party, that they armed themselves under Bacon, drove the governor out of

Jamestown, and burned the village (1676). In the midst of his success Bacon died, and Berkeley returned to Virginia. He put to death twenty of Bacon's followers and continued to rule the colony in his despotic manner, until the King, disgusted with such tyranny, recalled him.

70. Religion—Education—Manners and Customs. The colonists of Virginia belonged to the Church of England, and no one could settle in Virginia unless he acknowledged the



COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY

King as head of the church. This shut out many Protestants as well as Catholics from the colony, but the laws against the latter were especially severe. No Catholic could vote, hold office, or be heard in a court of justice. No priest was allowed in the colony.

Colonial Virginia was slow in providing educational advantages. Since the government was narrow in its religious principles, it did not favor education. Moreover, the widespread population made it impossible to have schools located at convenient distances. Free schools, therefore, were not established until 1688. The first college in the colony was the College of William and Mary, founded at Williamsburg (1693).

The Virginians were social, hospitable, and fond of amusements, such as fishing, horse racing, fox hunting, and other outdoor sports. The better classes resided in large mansions, while their slaves lived apart in small cabins. There were no large towns: the people lived on plantations where they raised tobacco, corn, and sweet potatoes. During the one hundred years between Bacon's Rebellion and the Revolution, Virginia became the most populous and the richest of the English colonies.

THE SETTLEMENT OF MARYLAND

71. The Maryland Grant—First Settlement. Unlike Virginia, which was settled by a company, Maryland was founded and practically owned by a lord proprietor. George Calvert, the first Lord Baltimore, a prominent Roman Catholic, desired to found a colony in America for the persecuted Catholics of England. He obtained from Charles I a grant of the unoccupied land north of the Potomac. Before his patent had been signed, he died, and his rights descended to his son, the second Lord Baltimore.

The Catholics of England, who had been cruelly persecuted since Protestantism had been introduced, gladly followed the Calverts, who themselves, in the face of intolerant laws, had become conscientious Roman Catholics, at the risk of losing station, honors, and office.

The little band of emigrants to Maryland took with them their families, servants, a considerable number of laborers, and four Jesuits, numbering in all about three hundred. On the festival of the Annunciation, they landed on the northern banks of the Potomac. Within an Indian wigwam, Father White celebrated Holy Mass in honor of the day, on the very soil where Spanish Jesuits, half a century before, had offered the same holy sacrifice for the first time in that wild region. A large cross was erected, and St. Mary's was then solemnly founded (1634) near the site of the present city of Washington, D. C.

At the request of Charles I, the new colony received the name Maryland in honor of his Queen, Henrietta Maria, the Catholic daughter of Henry IV of France. The newly founded town was called St. Mary's in honor of the Blessed Virgin Mary.



GEORGE CALVERT

The charter granted Lord Baltimore had been prepared by his own hand and was the most liberal ever given any British subject. It granted religious freedom and enabled the colonists to have a large share in their government. The proprietor was an almost independent ruler; he could coin money, grant titles of nobility, create courts, appoint judges, pardon criminals, and call together an assembly of representatives. His office was hereditary; that is, it was handed down from father to son. Acts passed by the Assembly needed only his signature, not that of the

king, to become laws. Although his powers were great, he could not make laws and collect taxes without the consent of the people. Hence, Maryland had its assemblies from 1639. In order to show his allegiance to the king, the proprietor was required each year to pay two Indian arrows and one-fifth of all the gold and silver that might be found in the province.

The settlers of St. Mary's, unlike those of Jamestown, immediately began to build and plant. A crop of corn was gathered the first autumn; the Indians taught the colonists how to prepare it for food, and how to trap game. Before winter, all were comfortably sheltered.

72. Religious Toleration—Toleration Act. The distinctive feature of the Maryland colony under the Calverts was religious toleration. St. Mary's was the refuge of Catholics persecuted in England, and of Protestants who fled from religious intolerance in the other colonies. Throughout Maryland religion had its peaceful sway, in the wigwam of the Indian as well as in the town of St. Mary's.

After the execution of Charles I, and the triumph of the Puritan party in England, the Maryland colonists, fearing religious persecution, determined to place religious freedom on as secure a basis as possible. Accordingly the Maryland Assembly passed (1649) the celebrated Toleration Act, which provided that all Christian denominations should be protected in Maryland. This was the first act of the kind in the United States and it won for the colony the name "Land of the Sanctuary."

In 1654, when the Puritans obtained a majority in the Maryland Assembly, they repealed the Toleration Act, excluded Catholics from the Assembly, refused them the protection of the law, and forbade the practice of their worship. Catholics did not recover their rights until after the Revolution.

73. The Mason and Dixon's Line. After the settlement of Pennsylvania, a dispute arose between Maryland and Pennsylvania concerning the boundary between these two colonies. This trouble was finally settled by two surveyors, Mason and Dixon, who established the present boundary line which separates Maryland and Delaware and Pennsylvania. This Mason and Dixon's line became famous later in the history of our country as part of the dividing line between the free states and the slave states.

74. Religion—Customs—Education. The Maryland people were very much like the Virginians except in religious matters. They were social and hospitable; sought amusements in outdoor sports; had few towns, lived on broad plantations, and raised tobacco as a staple crop. At an early date they cultivated Indian corn and the sweet potato, and gathered oysters and shot wild

ducks in the waters of the bay. Negro slaves performed the work on the plantations. They lived apart in detached huts, although, in Catholic families, their religious training was the same as that of members of the household.

The Catholics of Maryland brought with them their learned Jesuit teachers, who instructed their children, as well as those of the red man, in the essentials of religious and secular learning. From the repeal of the Toleration Act until the Revolution, however, the instruction of Catholic youth by Catholic teachers



EARLY ANNAPOLIS

was prohibited. The Jesuits, nevertheless, secretly maintained two schools for boys. There were very few schools of any kind in Maryland before the Revolution. The earliest was King William's School, now St. John's College, which was established in 1694 at Annapolis.

75. Two Notable Facts. Among the thirteen original colonies Maryland was the first proprietary colony, and the first colony to grant religious freedom.

THE SETTLEMENT OF THE CAROLINAS

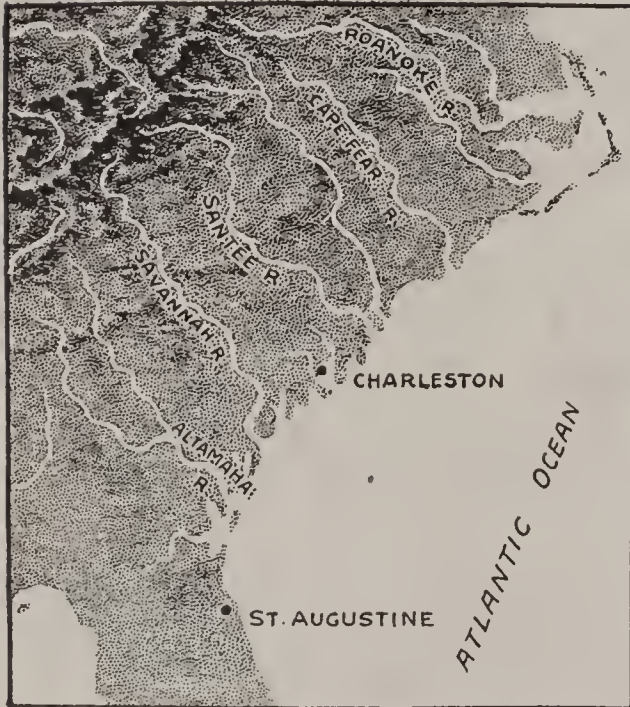
76. North Carolina Settled. In 1663 King Charles II gave to eight of his favorites the land extending from Virginia to Florida and from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. The northern part of the territory (North Carolina) was first settled in 1653 at Albemarle Sound by immigrants from Virginia. Later, Quakers and Puritans from other colonies found refuge here. John Locke, a great English philosopher, drew up a plan of government for this colony, which he called the Grand Model. It divided the whole population into feudal classes from noblemen down to serfs who were bound to the land. Government was to be largely in the hands of the nobility. The only good feature of the Grand Model was that it guaranteed religious liberty to all. The Church of England, however, was established by law.

This plan of government proved a failure, for the people were determined to govern themselves. The proprietors finally (1729) sold their rights to the King, who divided the territory into two parts, North and South Carolina, each becoming a royal colony. After 1700, large numbers of French, Germans, Irish, Scotch, and Swiss, emigrated to the colony. When the Revolution began, North Carolina was the fourth colony in population. Its people were widely scattered along the coast or in the roadless wilds, raising grain and live stock or cutting timber, making tar and turpentine, hunting bear, and trapping beaver. Cut off from the rest of the world, happy and contented, they formed a sturdy colony, tolerant in religious matters, and marked by a spirit of independence. They were not free, however, from trouble with the Indians. In 1711 the Tuscaroras attacked and massacred hundreds of colonists. After two years of warfare the savages were defeated. Early North Carolina had no towns, and in power and importance could not compare with her northern sister colonies.

THE FOUNDING OF SOUTH CAROLINA

77. Industrial Growth. South Carolina was first settled (1670) on the Ashley River by English immigrants under the leadership of William Sayle and Joseph West. This settlement known

as the Carteret Colony, was removed after a few years (1680) to a better situation at the junction of the Ashley and Cooper Rivers, where the city of Charleston was founded.



The people soon found that the soil and the climate were suitable for the growing of all the plants of the Old World. Before long, plantations of pears, olives, and mulberry trees extended along the Cooper and Santee Rivers.

Rice was introduced from Madagascar; indigo flourished, and later cotton became a most important crop. South Carolina traded extensively with the Indians in furs, and had a large export trade to the northern colonies and the West Indies in forest products—timber, pitch, and turpentine. The result of the profitable commerce in rice and indigo caused South Carolina to grow rapidly in both population and wealth, and Charleston soon became the largest city of the South. Immigrants from Holland, Germany, Scotland, Northern Ireland, and France came to Carolina in such numbers that in Charleston alone there were sixteen thousand at one time. Since many of these immigrants brought with them mechanical skill and business ability, their influence greatly promoted the industrial prosperity of South Carolina.

78. Slave Labor Profitable—Piracy. Negro slaves from Barbadoes were brought to the Carteret colony within a year after its founding (1671). The heat of the summer made labor in the malarial atmosphere of the forest and the rice swamps fatal to the white man. For this reason, negroes were imported to South Carolina in greater numbers than to any other colony.

At the time when the Carolinas were being founded the sea in the vicinity of the West Indies was made unsafe by hundreds of pirates who had set up their strongholds on some of the islands and the neighboring American coast. These pirates would dart forth from their strongholds and capture merchant ships that passed.

Robert Thatch, commonly called Blackbeard, was perhaps the most noted of these pirates. On one occasion he even obliged the governor of Charleston to pay a ransom for some captured passengers.

At first the people of Carolina engaged in trade with the pirates, but when the latter began to capture ships trading with Charleston, the Carolina people joined in the war against them; and finally the pirates were defeated and their power broken (1730).

79. Manners—Customs. The Carolina people were characterized by genial manners, and were thrifty and industrious. Slave labor was employed exclusively, while the work on the rice and indigo plantations was directed by overseers. The rich planters, as a rule, resided in comfortable and handsome houses. Life in Charleston, with its theaters, balls, and dinner parties, was gay, but little attention was paid to education.



BLACKBEARD

THE SETTLEMENT OF GEORGIA

80. James E. Oglethorpe—Georgia Founded. James E. Oglethorpe was a man prominent in the public life of England. As a member of Parliament, he became acquainted with the abuses of the English prisons for debtors. Moved by the misery



James Oglethorpe

of the unfortunate prisoners, he determined to found a colony in America where the most deserving of them could begin life anew. In 1732 he obtained from George II a grant of the country between the Savannah and Altamaha Rivers as far westward as the Pacific. The next year he planted a colony at Savannah. The new colony was named Georgia for George II of England, and the settlement took its name from that of the river near which the little cabins of

the settlers were first built. Georgia, the last of the famous thirteen original colonies in order of foundation, was settled the year after the birth of George Washington.

81. Object—Progress. Oglethorpe's object in planting Georgia was threefold: to found a military barrier between the Carolinas and the troublesome Spaniards in Florida; to offer a refuge to persecuted Protestants in Europe; and to transfer the inmates of English debtor prisons to America, where they might make a new start in life.

The progress of the settlement was hampered from the very beginning by certain regulations which distinguished Georgia from all her sister colonies. The government was exclusively in the hands of the trustees, and each settler was given but

a limited tract of land, which had to descend to a male heir. Moreover, the colonists complained because the importation of intoxicating liquors was forbidden, thus cutting off a promising commerce with the West Indies; and because slavery was prohibited.

Then, too, the discharged English prisoners were poor material for the founding of a colony. Oglethorpe's plans were on the point of being wrecked, when a number of industrious German Protestants, a colony of Swiss and Moravians, and a hardy band of thrifty Scotch mountaineers emigrated to Georgia and made possible the final success of the settlement.

The Georgians bought their land from the Indians, with whom they later made alliances. The savages were pleased with the noble and commanding appearance of Oglethorpe and his frank, kind manner of dealing with them, and trusted in his promises. A profitable trade was established with the tribes as far west as the Mississippi. Rice was the main staple crop. The only town was the village of Savannah, from which Indian trails led to the widely-spread plantations and trading posts.

Questions

1. When did the London Company make its first permanent settlement? Where? What classes of men made up the group of settlers? What kind of work was an "English gentleman" of the seventeenth century prepared to do? Would he succeed in making his living in the wilderness? Did many men in the group know how to farm? How did this affect their chances for success?

2. How did John Smith save the colony from ruin? What did Sir Thomas Dale accomplish?

3. How was Virginia governed in the beginning? How was the government of the colony changed later?

4. Why was Governor Berkeley unpopular? Why did Bacon and his followers revolt?

5. State a fact about education in the colony. About religion. Why did the Virginians devote much time to fishing, racing, hunting, and other sports?

6. Why did Lord Baltimore found his colony? When? Where? What was his view of religious toleration? Why was Maryland known as the Land of the Sanctuary?

7. What was Mason and Dixon's Line? Trace it on the map.

8. Contrast Maryland and Virginia in religion. In customs. In education.
9. Who first settled North Carolina? What was the Grand Model? Why was it a failure?
10. By whom was South Carolina founded? When? What part did slavery play in the colony? Describe the life of the people of Charleston.
11. Who founded Georgia? When? For what purpose? What progress did it make?

Theme Topics

1. Describe the coming of the women to Virginia. (See picture on page 66.)
2. King Charles I and Lord Baltimore discuss the founding of a Catholic colony in America. Let two pupils give this conversation as they imagine it.

CHAPTER VIII

THE MIDDLE GROUP OF COLONIES

THE SETTLEMENT OF NEW YORK

82. New York Settled. The Dutch had claimed the land between the Delaware and Connecticut Rivers by right of the exploration of Henry Hudson. They made good this claim by establishing trading posts (1613-1614), one near the present site of Albany, and one on Manhattan Island. These settlements were made, however, without any serious attempt at colonization. The first permanent settlements were established in 1623, on Manhattan Island and at Fort Orange (Albany), by some Dutch families sent out by the Dutch West India Company. The object of Dutch colonization was trade.

In 1626 the West India Company sent Peter Minuit with a band of settlers to reënforce the small trading post which had been established on Manhattan Island. Minuit bought the island from the Indians for about twenty-four dollars' worth of trinkets, and founded New Amsterdam, now New York City.

83. The Patroon System. The colony at first made little progress. To attract settlers to the new colony, the West India Company established (1629) the "patroon system." This gave to any member of the company who within four years brought into the colony fifty adult settlers an extensive grant of land. The land was to be fairly bought from the Indians, and the patroon, or owner, was to be an absolute ruler. He was required to pay the emigrant's passage from Holland, to stock a farm with animals and implements, and to provide a minister of the gospel and a schoolmaster. In return the emigrant practically bound himself to the patroon for a period of ten years. The patroon system was not very successful, and was modified later.

84. The Dutch and the Indians. From the time of Hudson's voyage, friendly relations existed between the Dutch and the powerful Iroquois Indians. Consequently the Dutch traders secured, through the hands of the friendly Iroquois, great quantities of furs from other Indian tribes, in return for blankets, utensils, firearms, gin, and rum.



DUTCH MAIDEN

85. The Colony under Dutch Rule. New Netherland was ruled (1626-1664) by four Dutch governors—Peter Minuit, the founder of New Amsterdam, Wouter Van Twiller, William Kieft, and Peter Stuyvesant. This last and most able of the four Dutch governors was known as “Peter the Headstrong,” on account of his stubbornness, and “Old Silverleg,” because he had a wooden leg bound with bands of silver. He was a strong defender of the colony, but he opposed all ideas of self-government. Under Dutch rule the people had no voice in the making of their laws nor in the levying of taxes.

86. England Lays Claim to New Netherland. After allowing the Dutch to occupy for half a century the territory they had discovered, England, becoming jealous of the Dutch trade, and wishing to have an unbroken line of colonies along the Atlantic coast, asserted her claims to New Netherland through Cabot's voyages. Accordingly Charles II granted this land to his brother, the Duke of York. An English fleet anchored in the harbor of New York (1664), ready to attack the Dutch. Since Governor Stuyvesant had only a very small force and the colonists were not unwilling to exchange the hard Dutch rule for a new government under the English, they surrendered New Amsterdam and with it the whole of New Netherland without resistance. These two regions were now called New York, and Fort Orange was named Albany, in honor of the proprietor, who was Duke of York and Albany. In the course of a war between England

and Holland, a Dutch fleet recaptured New York in 1673. It was, however, returned to the English by treaty in the following year.

87. The Colony under English Rule—Leisler's Rebellion. For about twenty years the colonists of New York were not given as much political freedom as the New Englanders enjoyed. In 1681, while Andros was governor, popular feeling in favor of a change grew so strong that the Duke of York promised an assembly. Two years later, when Thomas Dongan, a Catholic of great ability and liberal views, was governor, the first assembly was elected by the people at his call. It adopted a declaration of rights called the "Charter of Liberties," by which the people of New York were to have the same rights of representative government as the people of the other colonies, and freedom of worship.

But before the Duke of York could take any action in regard to it, he succeeded to the throne of England under the title of James II, and New York became a royal province. Though King James had become a Catholic, and in his private life was a credit to the Church, he nevertheless made some serious blunders in government owing to the fact that he believed in absolute rule. He refused to sign the Charter of Liberties, and, removing Dongan, sent back Andros to govern the whole of New England, as well as New York and New Jersey. New York was thus deprived of its long-desired assembly.

Andros was very tyrannical in his rule, and the people were finally brought to revolt. When the Revolution of 1688 occurred by which James II was deposed from the throne, the New York



DUTCH SETTLERS

colonists, headed by Jacob Leisler, established a government of their own. William III, the new King, sent over a governor appointed by himself, who tried Leisler for treason and had him executed. The assembly was, however, restored, and from this time to the Revolutionary War, New York retained its representative government.

88. Religion—Education—Manners and Customs. Under Dutch rule the established religion was that of the Dutch Re-



A DUTCH TAVERN

formed Church and there was little persecution. Under English rule the Episcopalian religion prevailed, and, except during Dongan's administration, the Catholic faith was forbidden. Catholics were denied the right of voting, and priests were ordered to leave the colony. In spite of this, the first Holy Mass in New York was celebrated in 1665 by Father Dablon on the site of the present city of Syracuse.

Little progress was made for a long time in education, although during Dongan's administration a Catholic College was opened in New York City.

The Dutch were thrifty, honest, and hospitable. Their chief occupations were fur trading and farming. The dress and furniture of the Dutch were extremely simple. In their homes they used no carpets, but had white sanded floors. They breakfasted at dawn, dined at eleven, and retired at sunset. Their houses,



FOOT OF WALL STREET—1673

built of wood, with gable ends of colored brick from Holland, had many windows and doors. Country places were called "Boweries." Instead of clocks and watches, the Dutch had hour glasses and sun-dials. Sleighing, skating, and coasting were first introduced into the colonies by them.

Though Holland had failed as a nation in colonizing America, the colonial Dutch settlers brought an influence for good to the part of the country settled by them. The Dutch maintained their simple language and customs for two hundred years. Not until some time after the Revolutionary War did they begin to speak English.

THE SETTLEMENT OF NEW JERSEY

89. Land Grant and First Settlement. New Jersey, originally included in the territory claimed by the Dutch, was early occupied by both the Dutch and the Swedes. The Swedish forts were soon conquered by the Dutch. After the conquest of New Netherland (1664), the Duke of York gave the southern part, lying between the Delaware River and the ocean, to two of his favorites—Lords Berkeley and Carteret—and called it New Jersey in honor of Sir George Carteret, who had distinguished himself as governor of the Island of Jersey in the English Channel. The first permanent English settlement was made in 1665 at Elizabethtown.

90. East and West Jersey—Government. In 1674 the province was finally divided into East and West Jersey and was for many years known as “The Jerseys.” The Jerseys eventually passed into the hands of a party of Quakers, among whom was William Penn. There was so much confusion over land titles that the proprietors sold their claims to Queen Anne, who united the Jerseys under the authority of the governor of New York. In 1738 New Jersey was made a royal province, which it continued to be until the Revolution. Colonial New Jersey had its own assembly and was tolerant in religious matters. New Jersey, a land of farmers, found markets for its agricultural products in Philadelphia and New York.

Princeton, the fourth college founded in America, was opened in 1746, at Newark. It was transferred (1752) to Princeton, where it is still located.

THE SETTLEMENT OF DELAWARE

91. First Settlement—Government. The first permanent settlement in Delaware was made in 1638 near the present site of Wilmington by a band of about fifty Swedes. They built a fort, which they named Christina in honor of the young Queen of Sweden.

The Dutch, who claimed this territory, looked upon the Swedes as intruders. Peter Stuyvesant conquered the Swedish settlements in 1655, New Sweden being added to New Netherland. The Dutch held New Sweden until it was surrendered to the English as part of New York. It was sold in 1682 to William Penn, who desired an outlet to the sea for his colony, Pennsylvania. Penn called the province "The Three Lower Counties on the Delaware."

This colony at first sent its representatives to the Pennsylvania assembly, but was later allowed a separate legislature by William Penn. When the Revolution broke out, the Three Lower Counties declared themselves a free and independent state, taking the name of Delaware.

THE SETTLEMENT OF PENNSYLVANIA

92. The Pennsylvania Grant. William Penn, the most prominent of the Quakers, obtained from the King, Charles II (1681), a grant of forty thousand square miles of territory west of the Delaware, where he founded a Quaker colony. The King gave to this vast territory the name of Pennsylvania, Penn's Woodlands, in honor of Penn's father, who had aided in the restoration of Charles II to the English throne.

Pennsylvania, founded as a refuge for persecuted English Quakers, had as its first object religious freedom. The Quakers were extreme dissenters from the established Church of England. They abolished all outward ceremonies, had no ministers, and believed that spiritual guidance came to each individual from God Himself. They were bitterly persecuted in the mother country as well as in some of the colonies.

93. Philadelphia Founded. In 1682 Penn came to America on the ship *Welcome*. He purchased from the Swedes a neck of land between the Schuylkill and Delaware Rivers and laid out a city which he called Philadelphia, or "Brotherly Love." The growth of the city was most remarkable. It soon surpassed New

York, founded more than half a century before, and for more than one hundred years it was the largest city in America.

94. Treaty with the Indians. William Penn treated the Indians with great kindness and justice. He made a treaty with them which was rigidly kept on both sides for more than seventy years. By this treaty he paid them a fair price for their land. In accordance with Quaker faith no oath was taken when this treaty was made. The parties exchanged gifts, and the Indians,



PENN'S TREATY WITH THE INDIANS

won by the gentle manner of Penn, exclaimed, "As long as the river runs and the sun shines we will live in peace with the children of William Penn." The elm tree, under which the treaty was made, was blown down in 1810, but a monument now marks its site.

95. Penn's Patent—His "Great Law." The Pennsylvania Charter made William Penn lord proprietor of Pennsylvania. It was modeled after that of Lord Baltimore, but did not grant such

great powers. In Pennsylvania, laws were made with the approval of the king; in Maryland, the approval of the king was not necessary. In the Pennsylvania Charter the right of the British government to tax the colonists was affirmed; in the Maryland Charter any statement of this right was omitted. As an acknowledgment of his allegiance to the crown, Penn was required to pay annually two beaver skins and, in addition, one-fifth of all the gold and silver that might be found in the province.

Penn's colony was founded upon very liberal principles. The council and the assembly were elected by the people, but most important of all was the "Great Law," which had been drawn up by Penn and accepted by the assembly. This provided that there should be religious freedom in the colony; that all resident taxpayers should have the right to vote; that each child should be taught a trade; and that the death penalty should be inflicted only for murder or treason. For the first time in the history of the world it was attempted to make every prison a place of reformation. Penn's Great Law remained the fundamental law of Pennsylvania until the Revolution.

96. Progress—Religion and Education. Pennsylvania, more than any other colony, was blessed with peace, abundance, and religious and civil liberty. These happy conditions, together with the reputation of William Penn, drew many people to the province from various nations,



and the colony grew rapidly, with a mixed population noted for thrift, learning, and industry. Among the leading occupations were farming, commerce, and shipbuilding.

Religious toleration prevailed throughout the colony. A number of Irish Catholics were among the early arrivals, and the Holy Sacrifice of Mass was celebrated for the first time at Philadelphia in 1686.

Education was not overlooked in the original plan of government prepared by Penn, and schools were established (1683) soon after the founding of the colony.

Though Penn's colony flourished, it caused him much anxiety and the loss of a large fortune, for it was not free from dissension. Even during the lifetime of Penn, the settlers refused to pay the rents necessary to cover the heavy outlay in behalf of the province, and sought to weaken his authority. Penn returned to his native land (1701), where he passed the remaining seventeen years of his well-spent life in poverty and obscurity. In 1779 the state of Pennsylvania bought out the rights of the Penns for about half a million dollars.

Questions

1. Describe the founding of New York.
2. What was the patroon system? Would you want to live under such a system?
3. How did Henry Hudson win the friendship of the Indians?
4. Why were the colonists of New Netherlands dissatisfied with Dutch rule? Did they find English rule better? Describe Leisler's rebellion. What were its most important consequences?
5. Describe the customs of the New York colony. Its education.
6. Why was New Jersey so called?
7. How was Delaware first settled? When? What was its later history?
8. When was Pennsylvania settled? Why? How did Penn treat the Indians? Compare the government of Pennsylvania with that of Maryland. Why did Pennsylvania prosper?

Theme Topics

1. Describe a Dutch home in colonial days.
2. Write a play dramatizing Penn's treaty with the Indians.

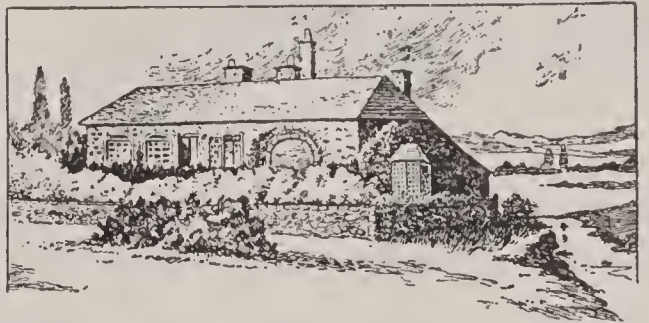
CHAPTER IX

THE NEW ENGLAND GROUP OF COLONIES

THE SETTLEMENT OF MASSACHUSETTS

97. Puritans and Separatists. During the reign of Queen Elizabeth a number of people became dissatisfied with the Church of England. Thinking that it retained too many rites of the Roman Catholic Church, they protested against some of the ceremonies of worship, such as the sign of the cross, the use of vestments, the ring at marriage, and kneeling in the church. Some of the people wished to remain in the church but to “purify” the services; for this reason they were called Puritans. Others who were dissatisfied refused to attend the English state church, and became known as Separatists.

98. Pilgrims. In the village of Scrooby, the Separatists attempted to form a church of their own. King James I regarded them as rebels and persecuted them. In 1608 a band of these Separatists fled from their homes in Scrooby to Holland where they were allowed to remain and to worship as they pleased. Being strangers in a strange land, they feared that their children would forget their English speech and habits; to prevent this they decided to go to America, where they could govern themselves and yet live under the English flag. Because of their wanderings, or pilgrimages, these people were called Pilgrims.



BREWSTER'S RESIDENCE AT SCROOBY

Returning to England, they set sail for America in the *Mayflower* and the *Speedwell*. The latter vessel proved unsafe, and

the Pilgrims were obliged to go back to Plymouth, from which port one hundred and two of them again set out in the *Mayflower*. After a stormy and perilous voyage they landed in December on the bleak shores of Cape Cod. There, at Plymouth (1620), these Pilgrims established the first permanent settlement in Massachusetts.

99. The Mayflower Compact. Before landing, the Pilgrims drew up on board the *Mayflower* a written contract pledging



A GROUP OF PILGRIMS

themselves to obey such laws as they should enact for the general good. This compact is one of the great documents in American history. John Carver was elected governor.

100. Difficulties—First Thanksgiving Day. The colonists suffered severely from cold and lack of food during the first winter, and Governor Carver and half of his little band died. Still not one of the survivors thought of returning to England when the *Mayflower* again set sail in the following spring. Instead they set to work preparing the soil for the seed, and the first crop (corn, pumpkins, etc.) raised by the Pilgrims, was good though small. Deer, wild turkey, and fish were plentiful. The

colonists were now sheltered in comfortable houses, and after the harvest was gathered and stored away, William Bradford, the new governor, ordered (1621) a three days' feast of thanksgiving, at which one hundred Indians were guests. Thus originated our annual festival of Thanksgiving.

101. Plymouth Leaders—Progress—The Indians. William Bradford, who was governor of the settlement for some thirty years, became the historian of the colony. Other leaders were William Brewster and the famous soldier, Miles Standish, the chosen military leader of the colony. Standish was a lion in battle, and spread terror among the hostile Indians, but was noted for his womanly tenderness in the care of the sick and wounded. Longfellow gives a good picture of him in his "Courtship of Miles Standish."

The Plymouth colonists, like the Virginians, at first established the system of holding property in common. Since this, however, proved unsatisfactory even among the sober and industrious Pilgrims, the common storehouse was abolished within a few years. Owing to the poverty of the settlers, and also to the fact that the number of Separatists in England was small, the colony grew but slowly. In 1691 it was united to the Massachusetts Bay Colony.

The Indian tribes of the region belonged to the Algonquin family; fortunately for the settlers, they had been greatly reduced in number by a pestilence. In the spring the settlement was surprised by visits from two friendly savages, Samoset, who had learned a few words of English from fishermen on the coast of Maine, and Squanto, who had been previously kidnapped and taken to England. These two natives brought to the settlement Massasoit, the great chief of the Wampanoags, who made a treaty of friendship with the Pilgrims. On the other hand, Canonicus, chief of the Narragansetts, sent the colonists a declaration of war in the shape of a bundle of arrows tied with a rattlesnake skin. When Governor Bradford promptly returned the skin filled with powder and shot, Canonicus treated for peace.

102. Government. The Pilgrims introduced the English town meeting. This government, a pure democracy in form, was the first of the kind in America. The citizens gathered at the town meeting, where they voted on all questions directly instead of through representatives. As the population increased, it became



NEW ENGLAND KITCHEN

inconvenient for all voters to assemble at Plymouth, and a representative system, resembling the House of Burgesses, was established. The right of voting was at first given to all men of the colony, but soon it was restricted by religious qualifications.

103. Salem, the Second Settlement. Charles I proved even more intolerant toward the Puritans than his father James I.

He stopped the meetings of Parliament and determined to rule as he pleased. A number of Puritans, adherents of the Parliamentary party, alarmed at the King's conduct and encouraged by the example of the Pilgrims, obtained from the Council for New England, which had taken the place of the old Plymouth Company, a grant of land extending between the Merrimac and Charles Rivers, and three miles beyond each, as far west as the South Sea (Pacific). A settlement was made at Salem (1628) under the leadership of John Endicott.

104. The Massachusetts Bay Colony—Charter. The next year Charles I, perhaps glad to get rid of a large number of his troublesome subjects, confirmed the grant of the Council for New England by a charter which created the Massachusetts Bay Company. This charter was a very liberal one and gave to the Company extensive powers which in fact amounted to self-government. The members of the Company emigrated to New England and since the charter did not state that the seat of government should be in England, the new colony became a self-governing community.

105. Boston, Third Settlement. In 1630 John Winthrop, with a colony of one thousand Puritans, made a settlement at Boston. Puritan immigrants poured in, settling under the Massachusetts Bay Company at Dorchester, Cambridge, Watertown, and other places, all of which formed the Massachusetts Bay Colony.

106. Towns or Townships—Government. The Puritans usually came in large communities, led by their ministers, with their plans of government well defined. They settled in parishes or townships, each about six or eight miles square, building their homes near a church or meeting house. All public business was transacted in the church, or in the town hall.

The New England town or township, modeled after the town of England, was the origin of our present system of townships, and was the striking feature of New England life, as the plantation was of life in the Southern colonies. In Virginia we have the beginning of county government, while in Massachusetts we have the origin of town government.

Massachusetts was originally a charter colony in which the governor and the members of the legislature, or General Court, were elected by the freemen of the towns. Each town was a little commonwealth, chose its own officers, regulated its taxation and political affairs, and sent its delegates (deputies) to the General Court.

107. The New England Confederation. The various settlements of Massachusetts and Connecticut (Massachusetts Bay, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven) formed a confederation or military league (1643), under the name of "The United Colonies of New England" for the purpose of defense against the French, the Dutch, and the Indians. Under the constitution of the league, each colony was independent in its local affairs, while important matters of common interest—Indian and inter-colonial affairs—were settled by a commission of two representatives from each colony. The confederation, which was the first experiment in united action by American colonies, lasted forty years. It prepared the way for the Continental Congress and for the final union of the states in 1789. It taught the colonists how to unite, and made stronger their feeling of independence.

108. Religious Intolerance. Although the Puritans had been driven by religious persecution to the New World, they showed no desire in their new home to establish religious liberty. Roman Catholics, Baptists, and Quakers, especially, were hated. All Catholic priests were forbidden to enter the colony, under penalty of banishment.

Roger Williams, a young Salem minister, was a man of high ideals and natural ability. He believed in the separation of church from state, and full toleration in religious matters. He thought that the king of England had no right to grant American Indian lands to the colonists. Because of these principles, Williams was sentenced by the General Court of Massachusetts to be sent back to England. He fled to the wilderness, however, where he was befriended by the Indians. In the following year he founded Providence, the first permanent town in the present state of Rhode Island.

The peace of the colony was next disturbed by Mrs. Anne Hutchinson, a gifted woman who gathered together the women of Boston to discuss religious matters. Banished with her followers, she sought refuge in Rhode Island. Later she moved to New York, where she perished in an Indian massacre.

109. The Salem Witchcraft. In 1692 a strange delusion regarding witchcraft caused a reign of terror in the colony. Various persons, at first only children and old women, were accused of being in league with the devil for the purpose of inflicting upon others different forms of torments. Suspicions, accusations, tortures, forced confessions of guilt, and executions followed one upon another, till the people became panic-stricken and no one felt secure. At length the colonists returned to their senses, the prison doors were thrown open, and the judges and ministers publicly confessed their error, but only after twenty persons had been executed and many others tortured and imprisoned. The memory of this event will ever be a source of shame and humiliation to the nation.

110. The Puritans and the Indians. The Indians in the earliest days of Massachusetts were friendly to the colonists. They taught the white men their methods of hunting, fishing, trapping, and traveling, and the use and cultivation of Indian corn. These services were very poorly repaid by the settlers of Massachusetts, who looked upon the Indians as savages whom the whites had a right to kill. Some attempts were made, however, by the settlers to Christianize the Indians. John Eliot, a minister of the Church of England, who came to Boston in 1631, studied the native language, translated the Bible into the Indian tongue, and gathered his converts into settlements called "towns of praying Indians." The attempts of the English to Christianize the Indians ended with the outbreak of the wars between the Indians and the colonists.

111. King Philip's War. King Philip was the chief of the Wampanoags. He formed a league with all the Indian tribes from Maine to the Hudson for the purpose of killing all the whites in New England. The consequence was a horrible Indian war

(1675), noted for its cruelties on both sides. It lasted two years, until the death of King Philip, when the power of the New England Indians was forever broken. Though the New Englanders overcame the Indians, their victory was costly. Out of ninety towns, twelve were utterly destroyed. More than one thousand men, and a great many women and children perished during this period.

112. Massachusetts Loses Its Charter. After a time Massachusetts gained the ill-will of the King because the colony had built up a strong and independent government, and because it opposed the Church of England. The charter was therefore withdrawn by King Charles II, and Massachusetts became a royal colony.

When Charles II died, James II, who succeeded him, appointed Sir Edmund Andros governor of all New England. Andros, an extremely despotic ruler, took from the colonists all of their political liberties. As soon as the people of New England heard that James II had been deposed from his English throne, they put Andros in jail and later sent him back to England. After this, the old forms of government were assured. Town meetings were held and the legislature was elected by the people, though the governor was appointed by the king. Under the royal governors the troubles of the colony increased until they were finally ended by the Revolution.

113. Education. The Massachusetts people early provided for the education of their children by establishing (1647) free schools. In fact it was in Massachusetts that the United States public school system began. Many of the Massachusetts settlers were university graduates, and it was natural that they thought it necessary to have a college. The General Court gave a whole year's tax, and John Harvard, a young clergyman, bequeathed his books and half his estate, toward the founding of Harvard College (Harvard University), the first in the United States, but not the first in America. (See page 37.) The name of Newtown, where the college was located, was changed to Cam-

bridge in honor of Cambridge University in England. The printing press set up in Cambridge in 1639 was the first in the United States, though the Spanish had used one in Mexico a century before.

114. Character—Manners and Customs. The Pilgrim founders of Massachusetts, though tyrannical toward all believers in any creed except their own, were characterized by industry, sobriety, and religion. They came to settle permanently in the New World and to establish a church and government according to their own ideas.



THE STOCKS AND PILLORY

The Puritan settlers, by reason of their very peculiar religious views, were of a gloomy nature, and their manners were severe and repelling. Every town had its public whipping post and stocks; gossips and scolds were bound and gagged at their own doors; fines were imposed for the wearing of too costly clothing.

The Puritan, unlike the Cavalier and the aristocratic settler of the southern colonies, did not wear satins, velvets, lace ruffles, gold buckles, or plumes, but a somber-hued tunic, loose knee trousers, and long woolen stockings. For out-of-door wear this costume was completed by a high hat and a short cloak. All persons were forbidden on the Sabbath to run or to walk anywhere "save reverently to and from church." These laws, though stern in themselves, produced a hardy race.

115. Industry. The rocky soil and cold climate of New England were not favorable to rural life, hence the people, unlike

those of the southern colonies, who lived on broad plantations, dwelt in towns, surrounded by small farms. The swift-running streams encouraged manufacturing; the good fishing off the coast led to a prosperous export trade in dried fish; the wild animals of the forest furnished a profitable trade in furs; while the fine timber of the woodlands encouraged the shipbuilding industry, for which New England became famous.

THE SETTLEMENT OF NEW HAMPSHIRE AND MAINE

116. Founding of New Hampshire and Maine. The Council for New England granted to Sir Ferdinando Gorges and John Mason, two Englishmen, the territory between the Merrimac and the Kennebec Rivers for sixty miles inland. In 1623 settlements were made at Dover and Portsmouth for the purpose of carrying on fishing and fur trading. A few years later the owners divided their grant, Gorges selecting the portion that is now Maine, and Mason taking what is now New Hampshire.

Although Maine and New Hampshire were proprietary colonies, their owners left the early settlers to govern themselves. Puritans from Massachusetts moved into New Hampshire, and, after the death of Mason, Massachusetts annexed the whole territory. Later, New Hampshire was made a royal colony.

Massachusetts paid the heirs of Gorges for their interest in the territory, and Maine continued a part of Massachusetts until admitted into the union as a state.

The settlers of Maine belonged largely to the Church of England. At the present city of Calais, however, the French, under De Monts and Champlain, erected a number of buildings including a small chapel. Here the Holy Sacrifice of the Mass was offered for the first time on New England soil in 1604.

The customs, manners, and occupations of the people of New Hampshire were similar to those of the people of Massachusetts, but their laws and ways of living were not so rigid. They were religious after the Puritan fashion (Congregationalists), thrifty, resolute, and brave.

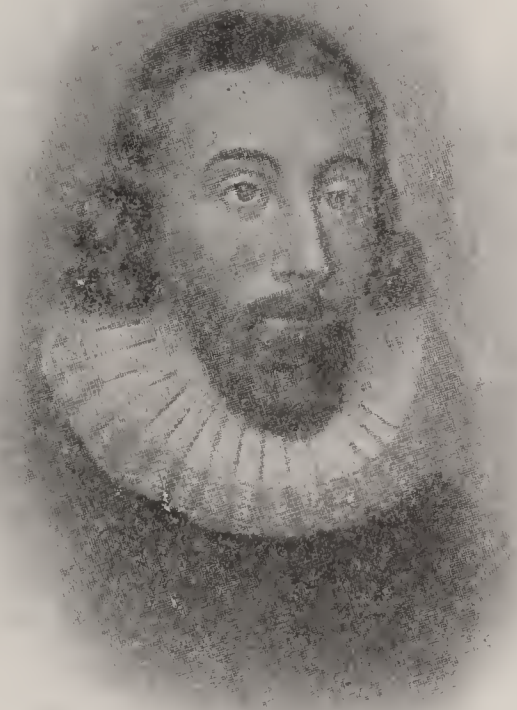
THE SETTLEMENT OF CONNECTICUT

117. Puritans in the Connecticut Valley. Because of the explorations of Henry Hudson, the Dutch claimed the territory as far east as the Connecticut River. They built a fort at Hartford, where they engaged in fur trading with the Indians. Some time later, John Winthrop, son of Governor Winthrop, of Massachusetts, built a fort, Saybrook, at the mouth of the river. This cut off communications between Hartford and New Amsterdam, and the fort was abandoned by the Dutch.

118. Conflict between Winthrop's and Hooker's Ideas. Governor Winthrop thought that a large number of the people were unfit to have a share in the government. He believed that the best and wisest persons only, especially the clergy, should be in control.

Thomas Hooker, the eloquent pastor of the Puritan church in Newtown (Cambridge), thought that all the people ought to share in the making of their laws. He and his followers, dissatisfied with the government in Massachusetts, moved to the rich valley of the Connecticut, where they founded the town of Hartford (1636). Other colonists from Massachusetts had already settled at Wethersfield and Windsor.

119. The Connecticut Constitution. The three river towns of Windsor, Wethersfield, and Hartford united under the name of



JOHN WINTHROP

Connecticut Colony. They adopted (1639) a written constitution which they called "The Fundamental Orders." This was the first written American constitution.

120. The New Haven Colony. New Haven was founded (1638) on Long Island Sound, by a company of English traders—Puritans—under the leadership of their minister, John Davenport, and a London merchant, Theophilus Eaton. This colony based its government upon the Bible, and like the Massachusetts Bay Colony, allowed none but church members to vote.

121. The Connecticut Charter. In 1662 Charles II annexed the New Haven colony to Connecticut. He granted Connecticut a royal charter, the most liberal in character that had been given, which made the colony a little republic and so well satisfied the people that it afterwards became the state constitution until 1818.

When Sir Edmund Andros became governor-general of the whole of New England he went to Hartford and demanded the charter. It is said that during a heated debate which was prolonged till after dark, the candles were suddenly blown out, and when they were relighted the charter had disappeared. It had been hidden in the hollow of a tree, famous ever after as the "Charter Oak." Andros no longer had a charter to suppress, but the colony no longer had one to appeal to. Thus Connecticut passed under the tyrannical rule of Governor Andros. When James II was deposed, Andros lost his authority, and the colony resumed its charter government.

122. The Pequot War. The Connecticut settlers were repeatedly attacked by the powerful Pequot Indians, who appeared to be plotting the extermination of the English. Captain John Mason and Captain John Underhill (1637), with a band of about one hundred men, attacked the savages. The Pequots tried to induce the Mohegans and the Narragansetts to join them, but Roger Williams, forgetting the wrong done him by Massachusetts, used his influence with these tribes, and they refused to help the Pequots in their war against the colonists of Connecti-



cut. Mason and Underhill finally practically destroyed the entire tribe.

123. Religion—Manners and Customs—Education. The colonizers of Connecticut were Puritans of the Congregational type. Other Christian denominations were merely tolerated, and religious freedom was far from complete. No Catholic priest was allowed to live in the colony.

The settlers of Connecticut belonged to the same class of people as those of Massachusetts. Hence, they were similar to them in manners and customs, though perhaps less intolerant in religious matters, and more liberal in political affairs.

Education received early attention in Connecticut. Free schools were established in 1650. Yale College, the third in the United States, was founded at New Haven (1701).

THE SETTLEMENT OF RHODE ISLAND

124. Founding of Rhode Island—The Rhode Island Charter. When Roger Williams fled to the wilderness to escape being transported to England, he and his five companions sought refuge with Massasoit, on Narragansett Bay. Here he bought from his red friends a tract of land upon which he founded a town (1636) for the purpose of greater religious and civil liberty. He called his settlement Providence, in gratitude for God's mercy which had thus provided for him. Further bands of exiles led respectively by William Coddington and Mrs. Anne Hutchinson bought from the Indians the island of Rhode Island, where they planted the colonies of Portsmouth and Newport. Roger Williams visited England as agent of the settlers, and procured (1644) from a Parliamentary commission a charter which united the colonies under the name of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations. This granted the people the right to elect their own governors and to rule themselves as they thought best.

125. Religion—Class of People. The first Baptist church in America was founded by Roger Williams in Rhode Island. The Baptist denomination became the most influential in the colony.

The charter granted religious freedom to all, though for a time (from 1719 till the Revolution), Catholics and Jews were denied the right to vote.

The settlers of Rhode Island, though much more liberal in their moral and civil principles, resembled the people of the mother colony in their customs. The first institution of higher learning was Brown University (founded 1764).

Questions

1. Who were the Puritans? The Separatists? The Pilgrims? Why is the Mayflower Compact a noted document?
2. Describe the relations between the Pilgrims and the Indians.
3. What kind of government did the Pilgrims establish?
4. Name and locate various settlements made by the Massachusetts Bay Company.
5. Why is the New England Confederation important?
6. Describe the relations between the Puritans and the Indians.
7. Why did the people of New York revolt against Andros? Was it for the same reason that the people of Virginia had revolted against Berkeley? How do these battles between the colonists and the King's governors foreshadow the Revolutionary War?
8. Describe education in the Massachusetts colony. Industry. Character. Customs.
9. By whom were New Hampshire and Maine settled? When?
10. What were John Winthrop's ideas of government? Thomas Hooker's? In which ideas do we believe today? From where did the Connecticut settlers come? In what direction were they moving? Why was their charter taken away from them?
11. Why did Roger Williams found Rhode Island?

Theme Topics

1. Write a brief description of the first Thanksgiving.
2. Describe an Indian attack upon a white settlement.
3. Puritan Punishments.

CHAPTER X

INTER-COLONIAL WARS



FRENCH AND INDIANS

126. Claims of European Nations in America. In the last part of the seventeenth century three European nations claimed territory in North America. Each nation based its claims upon discoveries, explorations, and settlements made under its flag. France claimed the valleys of the St. Lawrence and Mississippi Rivers and the region about the Great Lakes. England claimed the territory extending from Canada to Florida and from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Spain claimed Florida.

127. Causes of Wars. England and France had been bitter enemies in Europe for centuries, and now each was ambitious to control as much territory in America as possible. Both nations claimed the Mississippi Valley, and partly because of these rival claims, but principally because England and France were at war in Europe, the colonists began to fight in America. These struggles between the French and English colonists were called the Inter-colonial Wars.

128. King William's War (1689-1697). In 1688 King James II was driven out of England, William of Orange being placed upon the throne. France at once defended James, and a great war began, which soon spread to the colonies in America. After eight years of fighting the war was ended by the Treaty of Ryswick. Neither the English nor French in America had gained territory, and the old causes for enmity remained.

129. Queen Anne's War (1702-1713). After five years of peace, Queen Anne, who had succeeded King William on the English throne, declared war against France and Spain. Again the colonies in America took part in the conflict. The Treaty of Utrecht, which ended the war, gave Acadia, Newfoundland, and the borders of Hudson Bay to the English, who changed the name of Acadia to Nova Scotia.

130. King George's War (1744-1748). When war broke out again in Europe, the French in Canada made attacks upon the border settlements in New England and New York. The English sent an expedition against Louisburg, where a French fort had been built on Cape Breton Island at a cost of more than five million dollars. The French thought this fortress so strong that it could not be taken, but the English succeeded in capturing it. By the treaty that closed the war, Louisburg was given back to the French.

131. French and Indian War (1754-1763). The French and Indian war, so called because the French colonists and the Indian tribes fought against the English colonists, was the last and most important of the Inter-colonial Wars. The three preceding wars had settled nothing, but this war decided which of the two nations, France or England, should be supreme in America. The French had strengthened their power in the Mississippi Valley by the planting of colonies near the mouth of the river. Natchez and New Orleans had been founded shortly after the close of Queen Anne's War. France also fortified various points throughout the entire valley, building more than sixty forts at places of military importance on the St. Lawrence, the Great



Lakes, the Illinois, the Wabash, and the Mississippi. Mackinac, Sault Ste. Marie, Detroit, Chicago, St. Louis, St. Joseph, and Vincennes were the sites of some of the most important strongholds.

The English viewed this chain of forts with alarm. Some of the prominent men of Virginia organized the Ohio Company, obtaining from King George II a grant of land between the Kanawha and the Monongahela Rivers. The company at once sent out explorers and prepared to take possession of the upper Ohio valley. The French promptly resolved to stop the movement. They buried leaden plates, inscribed with the claims of France, along the Alleghany and Ohio Rivers, and began a new line of forts, including Presque Isle, La Boeuf, and Venango, which extended from Erie on Lake Erie to the point where the Alleghany and the Monongahela Rivers meet to form the Ohio, the present sight of Pittsburgh. This point was called the "Gateway of the West." Both parties understood the advantage of controlling it; both were determined to seize and fortify it.

Governor Dinwiddie of Virginia, alarmed at the activity displayed by the French, sent George Washington, a young Virginian, to Fort La Boeuf with orders to inform the French commander that he was building on English territory and would do well to depart peaceably. Washington returned from his perilous journey with a refusal from St. Pierre, the French commander. The Ohio Company now began to build a fort at the "Gateway of the West." Washington was sent with a small force to occupy the fort, but before he could reach it, the French had driven off the English, completed the fort, and named it Duquesne. Washington built Fort Necessity, which he was soon forced to surrender to the French.

132. The Albany Plan of Union. For the first time we find all the colonies working together. A convention of the northern colonies met at Albany, at which Benjamin Franklin proposed a union of the colonies under a president appointed by the crown and a council chosen by the people. His plan, however, was rejected by both the King and the colonists.

133. War Declared. The defeat of Washington at Fort Necessity was the beginning of the French and Indian War. France now sent over Marquis Montcalm to take command of

her forces. On the part of England, the war on both sides of the ocean was skillfully managed by one of the greatest statesmen the world has ever seen, William Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham. He not only furnished the English colonists with money and competent commanders, but also managed to keep the main strength of France busily engaged in the European struggle while English fleets were attacking her and English armies were driving her from both America and India.

134. Five Points of Attack.

The physical features of the country and the situation of the French clearly indicated five points of attack: Louisburg, Duquesne, Crown Point and Ticonderoga, Niagara, and Quebec. All of these points finally yielded to the English forces.

135. Acadia and Louisburg. Acadia, which had come into the possession of England by the Treaty of Utrecht, was inhabited by peaceful Catholic peasants. England had guaranteed them the free exercise of their religion and the privilege of not bearing arms against their French countrymen in Canada. They refused to take the oath of allegiance to England, because this would deprive them of these two privileges. Because of their attitude they were taken from their homes and scattered throughout the English colonies. Longfellow relates the sad story of these unhappy exiles in his "Evangeline."

Forces under Generals Wolfe and Amherst took Louisburg after a severe bombardment, which made possible a naval attack on Quebec.

136. Fort Duquesne. The fort at Duquesne was the key to the West, and its capture by the English was therefore important. This "Gateway of the West" was at first unsuccessfully attacked



LOUISBURG

(1755) by a combined English and colonial force under General Braddock. Braddock was a brave British officer, but he was ignorant of Indian warfare. The savages never met an enemy in open battle, but fired at him from behind rocks, trees, and bushes, being always on the alert to take him unguarded. Braddock, ordering his army to march on with drums beating and flags flying, blundered into a French and Indian ambush



THE TAKING OF QUEBEC

near Fort Duquesne, and his army was cut to pieces. He himself was among the seven hundred slain. Total destruction of the army was prevented only by the skill of Washington. A second expedition led by General Forbes, with Washington in command of the Virginia troops, captured the fort (1758). The name of the post was changed to Pittsburgh in honor of William Pitt, the prime minister of England.

137. Crown Point and Ticonderoga. The two strongholds at Crown Point and Ticonderoga, controlling the

route to Canada, left New York as well as New England exposed to French invasion. The first expedition against Ticonderoga, in command of General Abercrombie, was defeated, but one year later an English army under General Amherst forced the French to evacuate both Ticonderoga and Crown Point.

138. Fort Niagara. Situated between Lakes Erie and Ontario, Fort Niagara protected the great fur trade of the upper Lakes and the West. It finally surrendered to the English under Sir William Johnson, who was aided by his friends, the Iroquois.

139. The Fall of Quebec. Quebec, the strongest fortification in Canada, controlled the navigation of the St. Lawrence. This last and most important point, commanded by General Montcalm, was finally captured by General Wolfe after a desperate battle.

Quebec was so strongly fortified that the only way the English could reach it was to scale a high and almost perpendicular rock.



From the painting by Benjamin West

DEATH OF WOLFE

Wolfe at last found a steep pathway leading to the summit of the fortress. Over this he succeeded in getting his army to the "Plains of Abraham," where he surprised and captured the garrison. During the battle both brave generals were slain—Wolfe rejoicing in his dying breath that the victory was his, and Montcalm thankful that he would not survive to see the surrender of Quebec.

Montcalm was buried in the chapel of the Ursuline convent. On the monument that was erected in Quebec to the honor of Wolfe and Montcalm are the following words: "Valor gave a

united death, History a united fame, Posterity a united monument."

140. Outcome of the War. The treaty of peace at Paris (1763) marked the close of the French and Indian War and ended French claims in North America. By this treaty:

- (a) France gave to England all the territory east of the Mississippi except two islands south of Newfoundland, and to Spain all her territory west of the Mississippi;
- (b) Spain gave Florida to England in exchange for Cuba.

The British possessions in America now extended from the Gulf of Mexico to the Polar Sea and from the Mississippi River to the Atlantic Ocean.

141. Effects of the War. Besides securing for the English the supremacy in America, the war had many other far-reaching effects, namely:

- (a) English language, laws, and liberty were planted everywhere on the American continent;
- (b) a bond of union among the colonists was created;
- (c) the colonists had learned that the American troops were as fearless as were the British regulars;
- (d) a body of colonial officers was trained in the science of war;
- (e) France, swayed by wounded pride and loss of political and commercial interests, later volunteered to aid the colonies in throwing off English authority;
- (f) an enormous debt was created, which caused the levying of new taxes, and thus became the direct cause of the Revolution.

142. Pontiac's War. Immediately after the war, the Indians in the valley of the Great Lakes united under Pontiac against the English who lived near Detroit. The border settlements of Pennsylvania and Virginia were burned and hundreds of families were driven from their homes or massacred. After fighting desperately for a time the Indians begged for peace. Pontiac fled, but was killed by a Kaskaskia Indian. This ended the war.

Questions

1. On the map of North America show the territories claimed by Spain in the last part of the seventeenth century. By England. By France. Name the four inter-colonial wars in the order of occurrence.

2. What was done by the French to defend the claims made? By the English? Why was the present location of Pittsburgh an important fort in the struggle for control? Point it out on the map. How did the struggle against France help to unite the English colonies? What previous steps had they taken toward union? (See Section 107.)

3. Name the most important battle of the French and Indian War. Describe it. Show on the map of North America the territory owned by England at the close of the war. By Spain. By France.

4. What were the most important effects of the French and Indian War?

Theme Topics

1. Write a short theme telling how George Washington delivered Governor Dinwiddie's orders to the French commander.

2. Describe the ascent of Wolfe and his men to the "Plains of Abraham." (See picture on page 108.)

CHAPTER XI

A SUMMARY OF COLONIAL DEVELOPMENT

143. Extent of Colonial Territory—Population. At the close of the French and Indian War (1763) the thirteen original colonies occupied a strip of land stretching from Maine to Florida and from the Atlantic to the Mississippi. The colonial population had increased to about two million persons, one-fourth of whom were slaves. The Mason and Dixon's line divided the population into nearly equal parts. Virginia, the most populous colony, had 300,000 inhabitants, while Georgia, the youngest colony, had only five thousand. The settlers had come from many different countries, and the mingling of the various elements that made up the population—each with its own ideas and ideals—tended greatly toward broadening the views of the people. The English settled in all parts of the country, but chiefly in New England; the French Huguenots were found in New England and in the Carolinas; Germans made their homes in New York and the Carolinas, but there were more of them in Pennsylvania than in the other colonies. The Irish were found in nearly every colony, but the greatest number were in the middle section of the country. The Swedes settled mainly in Delaware.

144. Negro Slavery. Slavery existed in almost all the colonies. In the North, however, where slaves could not be used to good advantage on the small farms of New England, it was gradually dying out. Slaves were not numerous in the middle colonies, and in Pennsylvania the Quakers opposed slavery on moral grounds. In New York and New Jersey it existed to a limited extent, while in Delaware it lasted until the Civil War.

South of the Mason and Dixon's line negroes were particularly useful in the tobacco-fields of Virginia and the malarial rice-

fields of South Carolina. They formed about thirty per cent of the population in Maryland, forty per cent in Virginia, and sixty per cent in South Carolina.



A SOUTHERN MANSION

145. Industrial Life. In New England the people engaged largely in whaling, fishing, shipbuilding, and trading, but they also distilled rum from West India molasses. Agriculture, commerce, milling, lumbering, and trading in furs, were the chief occupations in the middle colonies; also iron and paper were manufactured. In the southern colonies, agriculture was the chief industry, especially the growing of tobacco, rice, and indigo. Tar and turpentine were manufactured, and lumbering was actively engaged in. The scattered conditions of the thirteen original colonies along the Atlantic gave rise to a large trade along the coast, and encouraged the building of vessels in all the colonies, but especially in New England. Here the industry was so extensive, and so many ships were built, that the ship-

builders of Great Britain complained that the Americans were ruining their business. This seafaring life naturally developed a hardy and expert body of sailors, and eventually furnished the nation with naval heroes.



BOSTON IN 1743

146. The Growth of Towns. We have seen that in the South the planters lived great distances apart along the rivers. Each planter had his own wharf, and goods could be bought and exchanged at his very door. This condition made the growth of towns in the South slow. Baltimore was the only city of importance in the tobacco country, and Charleston in the rice region. On the other hand, the political and industrial conditions of New England and the middle colonies gave rise to numerous towns which grew rapidly. Of these Philadelphia was the largest, New York second, and Boston third.

147. Commerce. In spite of the Navigation Acts, the colonists traded with Spain, France, the Netherlands, Portugal, and the West Indies. The principal articles of export were rum, salt fish, flour, and iron from the New England colonies; fir, lumber,

iron, and paper from the middle colonies; and tobacco, rice, indigo, tar, turpentine, lumber, and staves from the southern colonies. The principal articles of import were hardware, glass, crockery, clothing, furniture, and household utensils from England; and sugar, molasses, and cotton from the West Indies.

148. Travel—Communication. In colonial days travel overland was by foot, horseback, or stage-coach. Twice a week, covered lumber wagons made trips between New York and Philadelphia. Later a stage-coach called the "Flying Machine"



BALTIMORE IN 1752

covered the distance in two days, and the journey from Boston to New York in four days. Passengers were frequently called upon to get out and help pry the coach-wheels out of the mud. The rivers, lakes, and bays were traversed by means of flat ferries and row-boats, while along the coast traveling was done in sloops. In good weather the journey by water from New York to Philadelphia took three days. To cross the Atlantic required from a month to seven weeks or longer.

The mail, carried by a post-rider on horseback, was never delivered more than three times a week in large towns, while it

was rarely taken more than once a month to remote settlements. Postage rates were so high that people seldom wrote to each other; therefore, the chance traveler with the latest news was always a welcome visitor.



A POST-RIDER

149. Colonial Forms of Government. The colonies, with respect to their government, were divided into three classes—corporate or self-governing, proprietary, and royal. At the time of the Revolution there were three corporate colonies, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut; three proprietary, Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Delaware; and seven royal, Virginia, the Carolinas, New Hampshire, New York, New Jersey, and Georgia.

The chief difference in these three groups was the method of choosing the governor, who was elected by the people in the corporate colonies (except Massachusetts after 1684), appointed by the proprietor in the proprietary colonies, and by the king in the royal colonies.

The government in each colony was composed of three departments—the governor, the council, and the assembly. The

governor, who represented either the king or the proprietor (except in Rhode Island and Connecticut) had great power. He had the right of veto over the acts of the legislature, he was in command of the militia, and he appointed officials. He could not, however, tax the people. The council was usually composed of twelve distinguished residents of the colonies, who received their appointment from the same power that appointed the governor. Its threefold duties made it a board of advisers of the governor, the upper division of the legislature, and frequently the highest court of the colonies. The assembly, whose members in all the colonies were elected by the people, was the lower and larger branch of the legislature; it had much to do in making the laws, which, however, could be vetoed by the governor. If approved by him, the laws could be canceled by the king or the proprietor. The assembly alone had the power of taxing the people, and it often forced the governor to yield to its demands by withholding his salary.

In the northern colonies the town, or township, was the unit of local government. Once a year, at least, the voters of the town would meet, choose their own officers for the next year, and decide all questions which came up about the affairs of the town, such as schools, roads, and taxes. They also chose persons to represent the town in the colonial legislature, which met at the chief town, where the interests of the whole colony were discussed. In the South the county, subdivided into parishes, controlled local government.

150. Religion in the Colonies. The colonies were, as a rule, settled by religious-minded men, and the desire for religious liberty entered into the motives of many of the colony builders, notably those who founded Massachusetts, Maryland, Rhode Island, and Pennsylvania.

Calvinism, the most widely spread religious doctrine, prevailed in New England as Congregationalism; in New York it took the form of the Dutch Reformed Church; among Scotch-Irish and the French Huguenots settling in Virginia and the Carolinas

it was known as Presbyterianism. The Church of England was supported by general taxes in Virginia, the Carolinas, and Maryland, and its influence was strong in New York. The Swedish Lutherans and German Baptists were important factors in the population of Pennsylvania.

Catholics were numerous in Maryland and well represented among the Germans in Pennsylvania, but elsewhere they were not very numerous. The Catholic Church in the United States at the time of the Revolution was composed of scarcely twenty-five thousand souls. There were about twenty-five priests scattered here and there, but no bishops. No Catholic college or school, no hospital or asylum existed. In spite of the difficulties encountered by the colonial Catholics, the Faith was preserved. By the permission of Queen Anne, the Catholics of Maryland celebrated Holy Mass in private houses, and the Jesuits, ever loyal to the colony which they helped to found, ministered to the widely spread flocks of Maryland as well as to the few Catholics in Virginia. The regular congregations of Catholics existing in tolerant Pennsylvania, and parts of New Jersey were also in charge of the Jesuits (Fathers Schneider and Farmer). A small congregation of Catholics in New York was attended by the Reverend John McKenna, the first resident priest in the province since the time of Dongan.

151. Religious Intolerance. Religious liberty in colonial days did not mean the freedom of worship which all sects in the United States now enjoy. The groups of people who came to America for religious freedom wanted that freedom only for their own religion. They looked upon all outsiders as dangerous to the welfare of the community, just as the king of England regarded all dissenters from the established Church as enemies of the government. In most settlements made by these people, one church was established, and only the members of that church were allowed to take part in the government. Those who opposed the views of this church were persecuted. Catholics, especially, suffered during colonial times; they were denied the

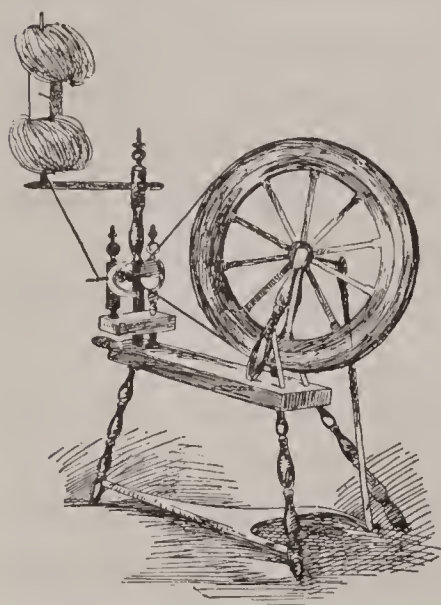
privilege of the law, burdened with heavy taxes, and deprived of certain rights as citizens. But the close of the colonial period marked the dawn of religious, as well as civil and political, liberty. Roman Catholics and Protestants fought side by side in the Revolution, and religious prejudices were forgotten in the one common interest, national independence.

152. Education. In New England the people, who valued education next to religion and almost as a part of it, early established free schools and colleges. In the middle colonies the Dutch patroon was required to establish a school when he made his settlement, and provision for education was a part of Penn's plan for governing his colony. The South was slow in advancing the cause of education, owing to unfavorable government and to the scattered condition of the population. The richer class, however, employed private tutors to teach their children, or sent them to England to be educated. The poorer classes had scarcely any educational opportunities.

153. Colonial Literature. The first book written in the colonies was John Smith's *True Relation of Virginia* (1608), a book of travel in which Smith described incidents of note in the early history of Virginia. Cotton Mather's *Magnalia*, a religious history of New England, was one of the first important books written by an American author. Father Andrew White, S. J., whose name is familiar in Maryland history, is especially noted for his *History of Maryland*, and a Grammar and Dictionary of the English language. Jonathan Edwards was another distinguished New England author, his most notable work being an essay called *Inquiry into the Freedom of the Will*. The colonial writer of greatest distinction was Benjamin Franklin, whose best production during the colonial period is a collection of wise sayings, which he published every year under the title of *Poor Richard's Almanac*. His *Autobiography* is also important.

"The Boston Weekly News Letter," established in 1704, was the first permanent newspaper in the colonies. "The Pennsylvania Packet," founded in 1784, was the first daily newspaper.

154. Colonial Art. The American artists of this period were the two historical painters, John Copley (1737-1815) and Benjamin West (1738-1820), and the great portrait painter Gilbert Stuart (1755-1828). Owing to the poor support given to artists in America at the time, they lived abroad, and each gained a reputation in England. Copley's most noted portraits are of the English royal family; West's most celebrated painting is the death of General Wolfe (see the picture on page 109); and Stuart's, a portrait of Washington.



A SPINNING WHEEL

155. The Household. In these early days, the New Englanders and the middle colonists (with the exception of the New York settlers) lived in log cabins. Eventually well-built houses of heavy oak timber took the place of these dwellings. There were few stoves, and large open fireplaces, over or before which the cooking was done, were used. The chief room was the kitchen, where huge bunches of seed corn, and long strings of apples and onions were suspended from the ceiling. The walls of the rooms in the better buildings were plastered and whitewashed. The furniture usually included a tall wooden clock and a dresser on which were the pewter dishes brought from England. Nearly every home had a spinning wheel, and a loom for weaving. The food was simple, consisting usually of Indian meal and molasses, corn cakes, and potatoes.

The middle class of the South lived in houses resembling those built in the North, but the rich owned stately mansions having wide porches and balconies, within which the music of the harpsichord was heard more often than the hum of the spinning wheel. The kitchen and the laundry stood apart from the mansion; wooden cabins at convenient distances from the residence housed the slaves, who performed the domestic labors.

156. Amusements. The New Englanders had few enjoyments. During the long winter evenings the mothers and daughters would sit by the fireside with their spinning, knitting, and quilting, while the father read his Bible or smoked his pipe. Sometimes cider-drinking, nut-cracking, and story telling helped to pass away the evening hours. The young people were not without their amusements—house-raising, dancing, and corn-husking parties, and social gatherings for spinning, quilting, and apple-paring. The chief holiday was Thanksgiving; Christmas was not observed because of the Puritan dislike for the Church of England. In the middle colonies, people were more social and fonder of merry-making than those of New England. Spinning-bees, corn-husking, house-raising, and dancing parties were favorite amusements in the country. In towns, horse-racing, cock-fighting, balls, and picnics, were greatly enjoyed. The chief holidays were Christmas, New Year's, St. Valentine's Day, Easter, and May Day. The planters of the South, with their fine dogs, blooded horses, and coaches-and-six, lived in wasteful extravagance. The southerner was fond of sports, and he was generous and hospitable—his home always open to the respectable traveler. On Christmas, the great holiday of the year, everything was gay and bright in the planter's house.

157. Two Ideas of Government. The thirteen original colonies, though thirteen distinct governments, had very much in common. On the whole they were English colonies, obeyed



PURITAN COSTUMES

English laws, and called the English sovereign their king. They traded with one another, kept in touch by means of letters and newspapers, and moved from one colony to another. Still, we have seen that the dwellers of the various parts of the country differed greatly from one another in respect to government, enterprise, religion, and spirit. The difference in the main was that between the Cavaliers and the Puritans. The Cavaliers, settling on the James River, believed in a strong government in which the leading men of the colony alone should control; the Puritans, settling at Plymouth, thought that all men should take part in the government.

Questions

1. Show on the map how the population was distributed at the close of the French and Indian War. How were the slaves distributed? Point out the location of the most important cities of the period.

2. What is meant by a corporate colony? A proprietary colony? A royal colony? How were the people represented during colonial days? How could the people control the governors? What was the unit of government in the South? In the North?

3. Discuss education in the colonies. Name the most important colonial writers. Painters.

4. How did the inter-colonial wars break down religious intolerance?

Theme Topics

1. Difficulties of Travel in the Colonial Period.

2. Be prepared to talk for five minutes upon the amusements of the colonists.

3. The Serving of Meals in Early Colonial Days. (Let one of the girls write briefly on this subject.)

4. Food from Forest and Sea. (Let one of the boys write a brief theme on this subject.)

CHRONOLOGICAL REVIEW

1607-1649

James I and Charles I reign in England.

Richelieu, minister of Louis XIII, rules in France.

Religious wars rage in Germany and France.

James I (1603-1625).

1607. Virginia (1) is settled by the London Company at Jamestown.

1608. Quebec is founded by the French.

1609. Champlain discovers Lake Champlain.

Henry Hudson discovers the Hudson River.

1610. Hudson discovers Hudson Bay.

Starving time in Virginia.

1614. New York (2) is settled at New Amsterdam by the Dutch.

1619. Negro slavery is introduced into Virginia.

The first representative assembly in America, the House of Burgesses, is organized.

1620. Massachusetts (3) is settled at Plymouth by the Pilgrims.

1621. Thanksgiving Day originated.

1623. New Hampshire (4) is settled at Dover and Portsmouth by the English.

Charles I (1625-1649).

1628. Salem, second Massachusetts settlement, is founded.

1629-1630. The Massachusetts Bay Company in America. Boston and other Massachusetts Bay colonies are founded.

1633. Connecticut (5) is founded at Windsor by Massachusetts colonists.

1634. Maryland (6) is settled at St. Mary's by English Roman Catholics.

1634-1636. Connecticut settlements are founded at Wethersfield, Hartford, and Saybrook.

- 1636. Rhode Island (7) is founded at Providence by Roger Williams.
Harvard College is founded.
- 1637. Pequot war in Connecticut.
- 1638. Delaware (8) is founded at Wilmington by the Swedes.
- 1639. First printing press of the English colonies is set up in Cambridge, Massachusetts.
- 1643. Four New England colonies form a league known as the New England Confederacy.
- 1649. Execution of Charles I.
- 1649-1660. Puritan rule of the Commonwealth in England.
Louis XIV reigns in France.

1660-1689

Charles II (1660-1685).

- 1662. Connecticut secures a charter.
 - 1663. Rhode Island secures a charter.
North Carolina (9) and South Carolina (10) established.
 - 1664. New Amsterdam conquered by English.
New Jersey (11) is granted to Berkeley and Carteret.
 - 1675-1676. King Philip's War.
 - 1676. Bacon's Rebellion occurs in Virginia.
 - 1681. William Penn secures grant of Pennsylvania (12).
 - 1682. Philadelphia is founded.
 - 1684. Massachusetts loses its charter.
- James II (1685-1689).
- 1686. Andros is made governor of New England.

1689-1714

War between England and France, and as a consequence war between the French and English colonies in America, known as King William's and Queen Anne's Wars.

William III and Mary (1689-1702).

- 1689. Leisler's Rebellion occurs in New York.
- 1689-1697. King William's War.

1692. Salem Witchcraft delusion occurs in New England.

1693. College of William and Mary opens at Jamestown, Va.

1694. St. John's College is founded at Annapolis, Md.

Queen Anne (1702-1714).

1701. Yale College is founded at New Haven, Conn.

1702-1713. Queen Anne's War.

1704. First weekly newspaper is issued at Boston, Mass.

1714-1763

George I, George II, and George III reign in England; Louis XV in France.

George I (1714-1727).

1724. Father Rasle is killed.

George II (1727-1760).

1732. George Washington is born in Virginia, February 22.

1733. Georgia (13) is settled at Savannah, by English debtors under James Oglethorpe.

1744-1748. King George's War.

Jonathan Edwards preaches and writes in New England.

Benjamin Franklin begins to write and to make experiments with electricity.

1746. Princeton College opens at Newark, N. J.

1754-1763. French and Indian War.

1759. Quebec is taken by the English.

The great Generals Wolfe and Montcalm die.

George III (1760-1820).

1763. The treaty of peace at Paris ends the French and Indian War.

1763-1767. Boundary line between Maryland and Virginia is settled by two surveyors, Mason and Dixon.



PERIOD OF THE REVOLUTION AND THE CONFEDERATION

CHAPTER XII

EVENTS LEADING UP TO THE WAR

158. The Mother Country and Her Colonies. The results of the French and Indian War not only ended the French claims and possessions in America, but also marked the beginning of the end of England's power over her American colonies. England had established her colonies in America in order that she might have dependent communities which would increase her trade. She regarded them chiefly as market places for her goods; accordingly, the laws she made in regulating colonial trade were based on the principle that the colonies existed for the benefit of the mother country.

159. Laws Restricting Trade and Manufacture. As we have seen, the Navigation Acts restricted colonial commerce for the benefit of British merchants. Under these laws:

- (a) the colonies could trade only with the mother country and her dependencies;
- (b) all imports had to pass through English ports;
- (c) certain exports—tobacco, sugar, furs, copper, indigo, etc.—had to be sold in English markets;

(d) duties were imposed on articles shipped to England as well as on all trade of the colonies among themselves.

The Sugar Act (1733), passed to protect the English West India sugar-producing islands, imposed a duty on sugar and molasses imported into the colonies from the French islands in the West Indies. This Act checked the prosperity of the New England colonies, which depended, for the most part, on their trade with the West Indies, where they exchanged flour, lumber, and fish for molasses and sugar. From these two products the New Englanders made rum, which they exported to Africa, exchanging it for slaves to be sold to the southern colonists.

When some of the northern colonies took to manufacturing, Parliament restricted this industry. New York and New England made a great many fur hats, but Parliament immediately forbade the manufacturers to export them.

All these laws, passed before the French and Indian War, were not very strictly enforced, and much smuggling was carried on. Nine-tenths of all the tea and other imports were smuggled, and colonial trade continued to flourish.

160. Writs of Assistance. After the close of the French and Indian War, King George III made up his mind to enforce the navigation laws and put an end to smuggling. He also wanted to make the colonies help pay part of the heavy debt which had been created by the recent war. To carry out his plans, the King now authorized the issue of "Writs of Assistance," which



GEORGE III

were legal papers that gave the British officers the right to enter any house or shop in America, at any time, and search for smuggled goods. When the officers enforced this right in Boston, the colonists made an appeal to the court. The court's decision was against the colonists, but the trial became famous on account of the eloquent speeches of James Otis, a young lawyer, who declared that the King's officers had no right to search a man's house.

161. Taxation and Representation. "No taxation without representation" was the principle for which the English people had struggled during many centuries. In the reign of George III, however, representation in England was still very imperfect. For more than two hundred years the method of sending representatives to the House of Commons had not been changed—small towns of not more than half a dozen voters sometimes sent two members, simply because those towns had always had two representatives; while many of the large manufacturing cities that had grown up in recent years had no representatives. Consequently the theory came to be held that every member of Parliament, no matter by whom elected, represented all the people of the kingdom. George III could not see why Boston, New York, and Philadelphia should object to taxation, when cities in England, that also had no representative, did not object. Therefore he stubbornly insisted that if the colonies opposed taxation they must be forced into obedience.

162. English Political Parties. At this time the House of Commons was controlled by a few powerful families of England, known as the Old Whigs, whose political party had ruled England during the reigns of the first two Georges. They were in favor of taking power from the king and giving it to the people represented by Parliament. The policy of the Tories, or Royalists, who opposed the Old Whigs, was to strengthen the king's power and reduce that of Parliament.

The New Whigs, led by William Pitt, were opposed to both the Old Whigs and the Tories. Their aim was to make Parlia-

ment really represent the people, and in view of this, they demanded that all the people should be represented in the House of Commons. "No taxation without representation," the watchword of William Pitt, was reëchoed in America by Patrick Henry and Samuel Adams in behalf of the colonies.

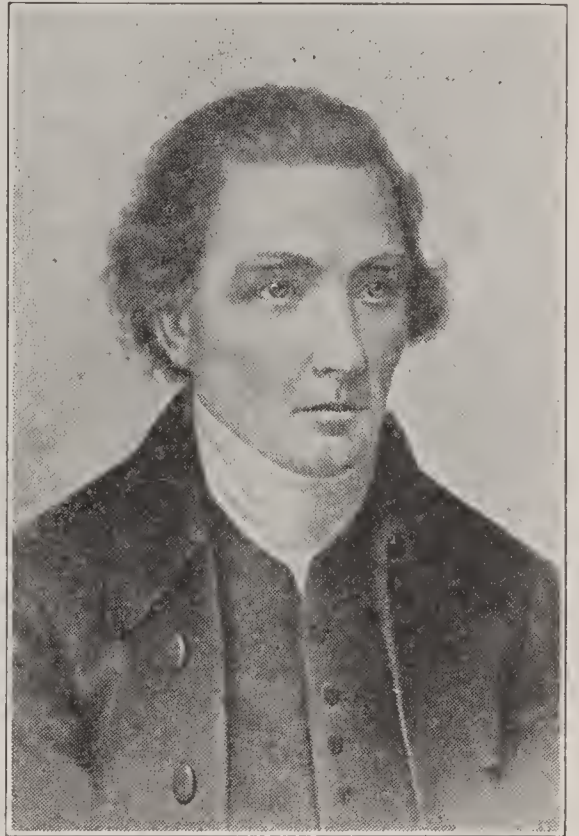
According to the British constitution taxes could be imposed only by the representatives of the whole nation; the colonists insisting upon their rights as Englishmen, declared that as they were not represented in the English Parliament, they could not be legally taxed by it. They were, however, not unwilling to contribute to the mother country in case the latter would permit them to be taxed by their own assemblies.

In England some of the greatest and wisest men, led by William Pitt, Edmund Burke, and Colonel Barré, supported the claims of the colonies. Pitt claimed that it was not right to tax the colonies, while Burke said it was not wise.

163. The Stamp Act. Holding to her right to tax the colonies, England now passed the Stamp Act (1765) in order to raise money

for the support of a standing army in the colonies. The Stamp Act required that all legal documents (notes, bonds, deeds, mortgages, licenses) and newspapers must be printed on paper bearing government stamps, the cost of which varied from one cent to fifty dollars.

This act aroused great indignation throughout the colonies. In the Virginia legislature, Patrick Henry declared that the British King had acted like a tyrant, exclaiming: "Caesar had his



PATRICK HENRY

Brutus, Charles the First, his Cromwell, and George the Third"—"Treason! Treason!" shouted one of the members. Patrick Henry paused a moment, and then calmly added, "may profit by their examples. If this be treason, make the most of it."

"The Sons of Liberty," a patriotic society, was organized to resist the Stamp Act. Benjamin Franklin, the American agent at London, wrote: "The sun of liberty has set; now we must light the lamp of industry and economy." The colonial women, forming themselves into societies called "Daughters of Liberty," agreed to buy no more goods imported from England. They spun yarn from which they wove cloth and knitted stockings for the men to wear. Instead of imported tea they used dried raspberry leaves at their tea parties.

164. The Stamp Act Congress. Uniting in resistance against the Stamp Act, twenty-eight delegates, representing nine of the thirteen colonies, met in New York City (1765). They framed and sent to the King and Parliament the "Declaration of Rights," in which they acknowledged the sovereignty of the king, but protested against taxation without representation.

The day on which the Stamp Act was to go into effect was made a day of mourning. Bells were tolled, flags were lowered, and business houses were closed, to indicate that liberty was dead. Many of the colonists refused to use the stamps, and some newspapers were sent out decorated with skull and cross-bones instead of stamps. England, seeing her mistake, now speedily repealed the Stamp Act (1766), but at the same time Parliament passed the Declaratory Act, stating that it had the right to make whatever law it pleased.

165. The Townshend Acts. The Stamp Act was followed by the Townshend Acts (1767), so named from their author. They imposed taxes on glass, lead, paper, painters' colors, and tea. The money thus collected was to be used to pay the salaries of the king's officers in the colonies and to support a standing army in America. These acts were as hateful to the people as the Stamp Act had been, and for the same reasons—that the

colonies were determined not to be taxed except by the vote of their assemblies, and that they would not pay taxes which would deprive them of their liberties. Consequently the colonists pledged themselves to import no English goods. They smuggled tea from Holland and other needed goods from France and Spain. The Massachusetts assembly sent to other colonies a letter, which re-asserted the rights of the colonists and appealed for united action in opposing the taxes. The royal governor ordered Massachusetts to recall the letter; she refused to do so, and her legislature was dissolved. Everywhere a similar spirit of opposition prevailed. The assemblies of some of the colonies who replied favorably to the circular letter were dissolved. In Massachusetts, when the assembly was dismissed, its work was continued by the Boston town meeting in Faneuil Hall, which came to be called the "Cradle of Liberty." When Faneuil Hall was too small to seat the large crowds, the meeting used to adjourn to the Old South Church.



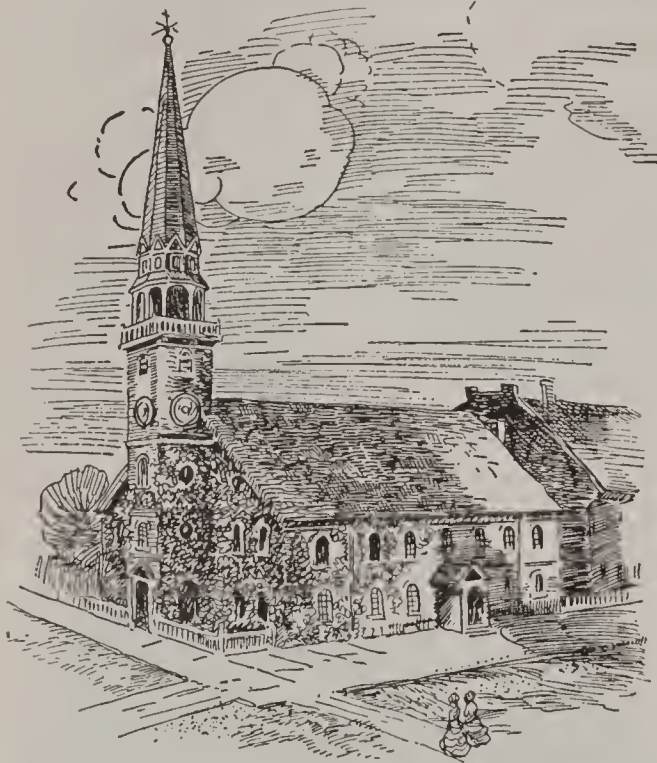
FANEUIL HALL TODAY

166. Boston Massacre. In October, 1768, two British regiments were ordered to Boston to assist in enforcing the new tax laws. The presence of the troops was very offensive to the people, and quarrels became an almost daily occurrence. One evening the city guard was insulted, and a fight followed, in which about twelve men were killed or wounded (1770). The day after this fight, which is known as the Boston Massacre, a

mass meeting was held in the Old South Church. Samuel Adams, the Father of the Revolution, as spokesman, demanded

that the troops be withdrawn. His demand was granted, and the soldiers were removed to an island in Boston harbor.

167. The Tea Tax. Parliament, alarmed by the opposition of the colonists, now repealed all the Townshend tax measures except the one on tea (1770). This tax Parliament imposed merely to show the colonies that it had a right to tax them. Although tea in America was cheaper than in England, the colonists refused to pay the tax, on the



OLD SOUTH CHURCH

ground that it was not cheap tea they wanted, but untaxed tea. Large cargoes of tea were sent to various American ports. The people of New York and Philadelphia refused to allow the cargoes to be landed; in Charleston, tea was stored away. In Boston, a number of men disguised as Indians boarded the tea-ships, ripped open over three hundred chests of tea, valued at about ninety thousand dollars, and emptied the contents into the harbor (1773). This was known as the Boston Tea Party.

168. The Five Intolerable Acts. To punish the people of Boston for their resistance to the tea tax Parliament now passed (1774) "The Five Intolerable Acts." These Acts were:

- (1) The Boston Port Bill which closed the port of Boston to all trade until the town should pay for the tea that had been destroyed;
- (2) The Massachusetts Bill which annulled the charter of Massachusetts and gave all power to the military governor, General Gage;

- (3) The Transportation Bill which provided that any officer or soldier who committed murder in Massachusetts might be sent to England or some other colony for trial;
- (4) The Quartering Act which provided for the lodging of troops upon the people;
- (5) The Quebec Act which made all the country north of the Ohio and east of the Mississippi a part of Canada.

169. The First Continental Congress. The Five Intolerable Acts aroused the greatest indignation throughout the colonies. In Boston, meetings were held almost daily in Faneuil Hall and the Old South Church. Under the leadership of Samuel Adams a committee was appointed to correspond with the other towns of Massachusetts, in order that everyone in the colony might know what was happening in Boston. This would help to unite the people, Adams thought, causing them to resist the Acts. Soon there were Committees of Correspondence not only in Massachusetts but also in every colony. Through them each colony became acquainted with the views of all the others, and the Committees of Correspondence opened the door, as it were, to the First Continental Congress. This Congress, the greatest meeting of Americans yet held, met on September 5, 1774, in Carpenters' Hall, Philadelphia. Fifty-five delegates represented all the colonies except Georgia, whose royal governor succeeded in preventing the appointment of representatives.

The most important thing that the Congress did was the writing of a Declaration of Rights, in which the grievances of the colonies and their principles of government were stated. In addition to this, it passed resolutions of sympathy for Massachusetts, declaring that should England attempt to force obedience in that colony, all America would support the colonists in their opposition; and it also fixed the date of meeting of the next Continental Congress (May 10, 1775).

170. Plans for Conciliation Fail. King George and his advisers, hearing of the Congress, were more determined than ever to make America submit. Pitt petitioned for the removal of the

British troops from Boston, and, with Franklin, prepared a plan for settling the difficulties between England and her colonies. Edmund Burke, too, spoke eloquently, pleading for the repeal of the oppressive acts, but all in vain. Franklin, who now saw that nothing could be done, hastened back to America.

Preparations for war were now begun. Two distinct parties had arisen in America: the Tories, like the Tories in England, sided with the King and were opposed to war; the Whigs disapproved of the King's policy and favored war. Patrick Henry voiced the sentiment of the Whigs by declaring in a stirring speech, which he delivered in St. John's Church, Richmond, Virginia: "We must fight! We must fight! Give me liberty or give me death!" Volunteers were raised, one-third of whom were "Minute-men," that is, men ready to march and fight at a minute's notice; and stores of war materials were collected.

Questions

1. Why did England claim the right to make laws governing the trade of the colonies? How did she attempt to restrict trade and manufacturing? Why did the New England merchants smuggle? Was there any connection between this smuggling and the Writs of Assistance?

2. How did it happen that certain large cities in England had no representation in Parliament? Which political party opposed this condition? How was the struggle reflected in the colonies?

3. Why did the British Government impose the stamp tax? What colonies were affected by it? What influence did this tax have upon the relations between the colonies? What were the Townshend Acts? What was their effect? Why did the English Government retain the tax on tea? What were the Intolerable Acts? Why were they passed?

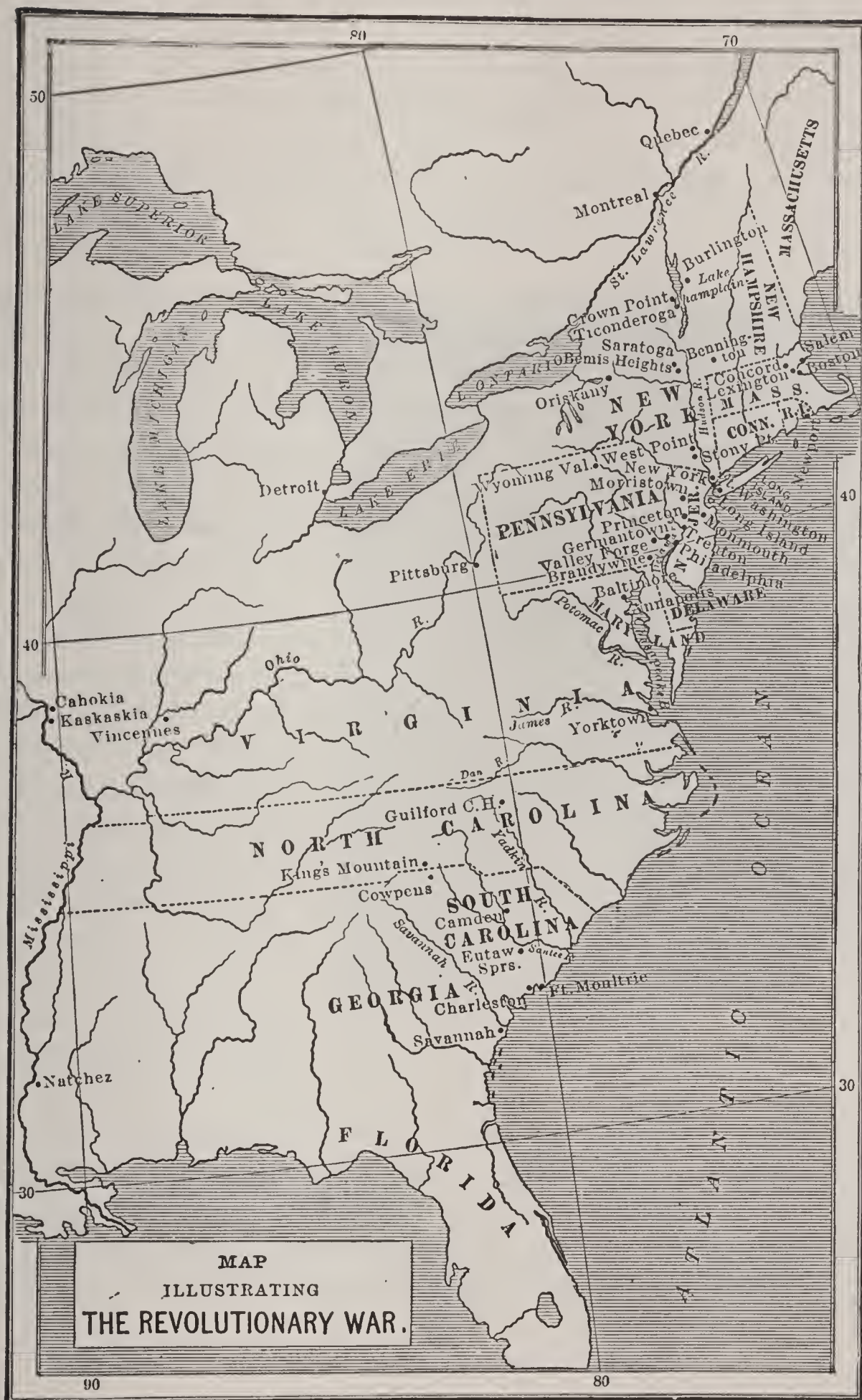
4. Why was the first Continental Congress assembled? How many colonies were represented? (Review Sections 107 and 132 to recall former steps toward union.) What work did the Congress do?

5. Who were the Whigs? The Tories? What attitude did each take toward the English Government?

Theme Topics

1. Burke's Friendship for the American Colonies.

2. Imagine that you were one of the men who took part in the Boston Tea Party. Tell the class about it.



CHAPTER XIII

FIRST PERIOD OF THE WAR—1775-1777

FIRST YEAR—1775

171. Battle of Lexington. The first blood of the war was shed at Lexington, a small village eleven miles from Boston, on the highway to Concord. General Gage determined to secure the military stores which the patriots had collected at Concord, and to capture Samuel Adams and John Hancock, the two men in Massachusetts who had done most to stir up rebellion against England. The King ordered Gage to arrest and send them to England to be tried for treason.



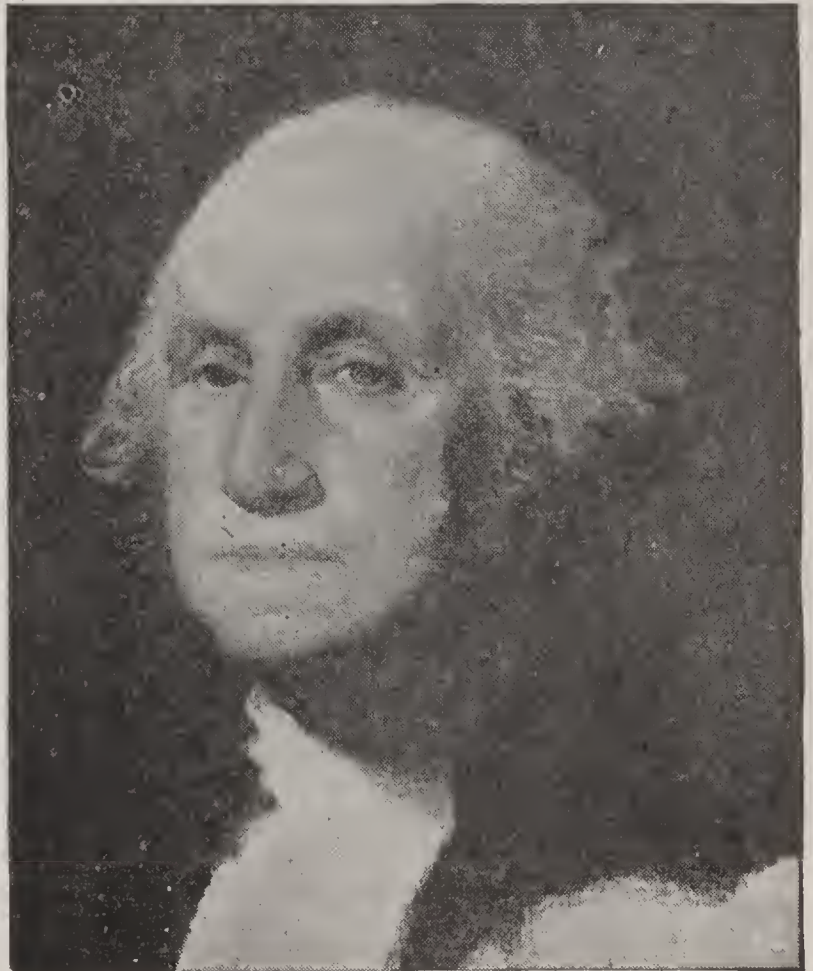
BOSTON AND VICINITY

It was rumored that the soldiers would be sent to seize the stores on the night preceding April 19. General Joseph Warren hastily sent Paul Revere from Boston to spread the alarm, and to warn Adams and Hancock, who had escaped to Lexington.

Revere crossed by boat to Charlestown, where he waited until two lanterns, hung in the belfry of the Old North Church, gave the signal that the British were starting by way of the bay and the Charles River, through Cambridge. He now set out on his famous midnight ride, by way of Medford and Lexington, everywhere arousing the people. When he reached the house in Lexington where Hancock and Adams were asleep, a man on guard cried out: "Don't make so much noise!" "Noise!" shouted Revere. "You'll soon have

noise enough. The regulars are coming!" Adams and Hancock escaped, while Revere pressed on, with his startling message, to Concord. (Read Longfellow's "Ride of Paul Revere.")

Eight hundred British soldiers, under Major Pitcairn, met about fifty minute-men in a skirmish at Lexington, and seven Americans were killed. The British, pushing on to Concord, destroyed what was left of the colonial supplies, and then fell back to Lexington under American fire. Here they were reënforced, but continued their disorderly retreat as far as Boston, followed all the way by the minute-men who kept firing at them from the shelter of trees, houses, and walls. Nearly three hundred of the King's soldiers were left, dead or dying, along the road, while the dead and wounded of the patriots numbered about ninety.



From the painting by Gilbert Stuart

172. Second Continental Congress. The Second Continental

Congress began its session on May 10, 1775, in the Old State House (now Independence Hall), Philadelphia. At its sessions:

- (a) it voted to raise an army of twenty thousand, the expense of which was to be paid by the united colonies;
- (b) George Washington was appointed, by unanimous vote, Commander-in-chief of the Continental Army.

GEORGE WASHINGTON

173. Capture of Ticonderoga and Crown Point. On the day that the Second Continental Congress met for the first time, a company of "Green Mountain Boys" from Vermont, under Ethan Allen and Benedict Arnold, surprised the British garrison at Fort Ticonderoga. Entering the fort in the night, Ethan Allen found the commander in bed. He ordered him to surrender. "In whose name?" demanded the bewildered officer,



CRAIGIE HOUSE, THE HOME OF LONGFELLOW
(Washington's Headquarters, 1775)

who had just been aroused from sleep. "In the name of the Great Jehovah and the Continental Congress!" replied Allen. No resistance was attempted.

A few days later the Americans captured Crown Point. By their victories at Ticonderoga and Crown Point the patriots gained possession of valuable military stores, and obtained control of Lakes Champlain and George, the water route between New York and Canada.

174. Battle of Bunker Hill. General Gage, having received reënforcements from England, under command of Generals Howe, Clinton, and Burgoyne, now commanded at Boston a force of about eight thousand men. He planned to fortify Breed's Hill and Bunker Hill, but was surprised to find that he had been out-generaled by the Americans, who had fortified Breed's Hill during the night. Forces under General Howe prepared at once to drive the Americans from the hill. In two desperate attacks the British were driven back with a loss of one-third of their number, and only because the American ammunition had given out was the third assault of the British a success (June 17).

The English lost more than one thousand men, the Americans fewer than four hundred fifty. Among those killed on the American side was the brave General Joseph Warren, commander-in-chief of the Massachusetts militia. The death of General Warren was the most serious loss in a single life during the war. The English lost Major Pitcairn.

The Battle of Bunker Hill inspired the Americans with courage and hope. They learned that their troops were equal to those of the British army, and the English learned the same lesson.

175. Washington in Charge of the Army. On July 2, 1775, under an elm tree (which is still standing, 1923), near Harvard University, Cambridge, Washington took command of the American army. The men he found encamped before Boston were poorly clad, ill-equipped, and disorderly. Washington spent the fall and winter in building up a strong force from these disorganized soldiers. In this difficult task he was helped by Generals Greene, Sullivan, Putnam, Gates, and others. By extraordinary efforts the army was brought under discipline. Cannon were transported from Ticonderoga; the British stores in the Bermudas were seized, and powder, which had been sorely needed, was collected from all the country towns in the region.

SECOND YEAR OF THE WAR—1776

176. The British Leave Boston—Attack on Charleston Fails.

Washington, while training his army, drew his lines closely around Boston. One night he seized and fortified Dorchester Heights; the next morning Howe, who had taken Gage's place, seeing that not only his army, but also his fleet, was at the mercy of Washington, sailed for Halifax, Nova Scotia (March).

A British force under Clinton had left Boston with the secret purpose of making an attack on New York, but having failed in this plan, Clinton sailed south to attack Charleston. He was repulsed at Sullivan's Island in Charleston harbor by the united forces of Colonel Moultrie and General Charles Lee. The fort from which Clinton's attack was repulsed bore ever after the name of its defender, Colonel Moultrie. In the heat of the battle, the flag of the fort was shot away, and fell outside. Sergeant Jasper, seeing this, cried: "Don't let us fight without a flag!" and, leaping after it, seized and fastened it to a staff. Then in sight of the whole British fleet, amid a volley of bullets, he fixed it once more firmly in its place.

177. Steps Toward Independence. Up to this time the majority of the colonists had hoped for a peaceful settlement with the mother country without a complete separation; but a year of war and the fact that England hired soldiers (Hessians) to fight against her own subjects, led the Americans to debate earnestly the question of independence. Thomas Paine published a pamphlet, "Common Sense," in which he declared that the time had come for a final separation from England. This pamphlet, which was read by thousands, became a powerful influence in developing the idea of independence.

178. The Declaration of Independence. At the Congress which met on June 7, 1776, in Independence Hall, Philadelphia, Richard Henry Lee of Virginia offered the famous resolution: "that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states." The resolution was seconded by John

Adams of Massachusetts. On July 2 the Independence resolution was passed, and a committee, consisting of Thomas Jefferson (chairman), John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and Robert R. Livingston, was appointed to draw up the Declaration of Independence. This Declaration was written by Jefferson, and adopted July 4, 1776. On this date the colonies became free and independent states, and the Fourth of July has ever since been celebrated as the birthday of the nation. The Declaration was signed by fifty-six delegates from the



INDEPENDENCE HALL, 1776

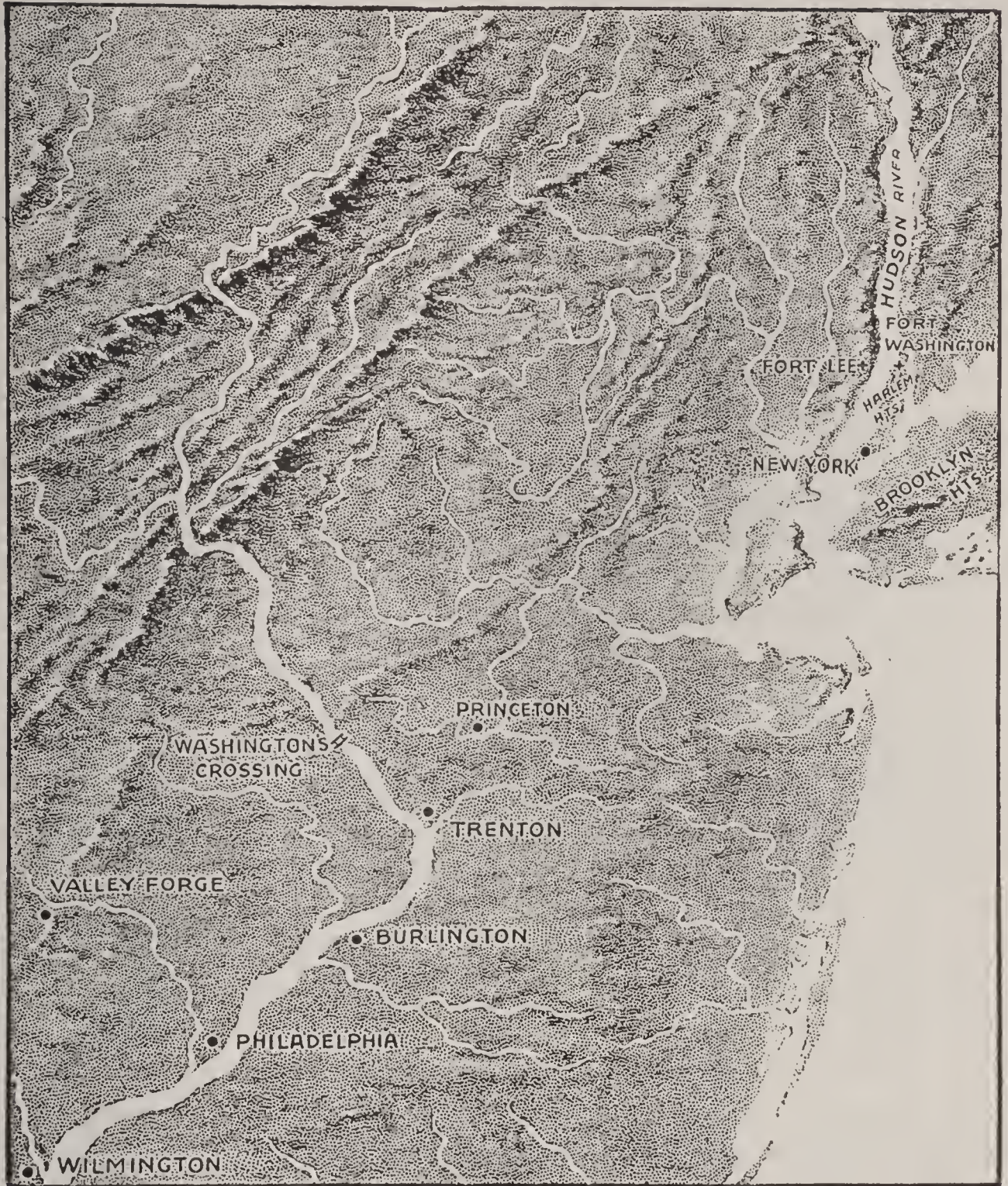
various states. The signing of the Declaration of Independence was regarded in England as treason, a crime which was punishable by death. John Hancock, as president of the Congress, was the first to attach his signature. He wrote his name in a bold, clear hand, saying: "There, John Bull can read that without spectacles, and may now double his reward of five hundred pounds for my head." Then he added: "Gentlemen, we must all hang together." "Yes," replied Franklin, "or we shall all hang separately." It is said that when Charles Carroll affixed his signature, someone, alluding to his great wealth,

said: "There go millions;" while another remarked: "No, there are several Charles Carrolls," whereupon the eminent signer added to his name the words: "Of Carrollton," saying as he did so, "They cannot mistake me now." Stephen Hopkins was afflicted with palsy; when he was writing his name a bystander remarked, "Your hand trembles." The patriot answered, "True, but my heart does not."

The adoption of the Declaration of Independence caused great rejoicing throughout the country, except in Tory sections. The thirteen British colonies had ceased to exist, and in their place stood a new nation—The United States of America. The old Liberty Bell rang out the glad tidings to all the land, while every steeple reëchoed it. In New York the excited patriots pulled down the leaden statue of George III, which they molded into bullets for the use of the army. The people realized that they must make good this declaration of independence by a desperate struggle.

179. The Opposing Armies at New York. After the failure of the British in New England, they planned to gain control of the Middle States, in order to separate this section of the country from the southern section. This could be best done by getting possession of New York harbor and of the water route to Canada by way of the Hudson River and Lake Champlain.

To carry out this plan, General Howe, who had reached Halifax, now sailed to New York and established his headquarters on Staten Island, with about thirty thousand well-armed soldiers under his command. Washington, discovering the plans of the enemy, gathered his forces, about seventeen thousand men, at New York, to protect the city. Fort Lee and Fort Washington were built on opposite sides of the Hudson; Brooklyn Heights on Long Island was immediately fortified and placed under the command of General Putnam, who was one of the great number of recruits who had gathered at Cambridge after the Battle of Lexington. He had been plowing on his farm in Connecticut when the news of the battle reached him.



Leaving his plow in the furrow and his oxen free, he sprang to his horse and never stopped until he reached the camp at Cambridge.

180. The Battle of Long Island. General Howe, who saw that, by securing Brooklyn Heights, he could drive Washington

out of New York, attacked a detachment of Putnam's army under Sullivan and defeated it with a heavy loss (August). He did not, however, follow up his victory, and Washington, under cover of a dense fog and burning camp fires, removed his entire army across East River to New York. Again, as at Bunker Hill and Dorchester Heights, the slow-witted Howe was out-generaled by Washington.

181. Washington's Masterly Retreat. Howe followed Washington to New York, and the latter, unable to hold the city against the superior forces of the enemy, retreated northward along the east side of the Hudson to Peekskill, meeting Howe's skirmishing parties at Harlem and White Plains (October).

Washington sent Captain Nathan Hale, only twenty-one years of age, a school teacher by profession, to gain some information respecting the British in the city. Betrayed by an American Tory, Hale was captured by the enemy and executed, without trial, as a spy. His last words were, "I only regret that I have but one life to give for my country."

Howe, proceeding down the Hudson, attacked and captured Forts Lee and Washington. After this loss Washington left General Charles Lee to hold Peekskill, while he himself hurried across the Hudson to New Jersey to protect Philadelphia. The British, under Lord Cornwallis, also crossed the Hudson. Washington now ordered Lee, who was still on the east side of the river, to join him; but this treacherous commander refused, and Washington was forced to retreat. Greatly outnumbered by the British, he fled rapidly before them through Newark, New Brunswick, Princeton, and Trenton, crossing the Delaware into Pennsylvania. Since Washington had seized all the boats in reach, Cornwallis could not cross the river. General Lee, who now started leisurely to follow his chief into New Jersey, was captured by the British; his troops, however, succeeded in joining Washington's forces. Jealous of Washington, and disappointed in his hope of securing the latter's position, Lee wished to see him fail.

The American situation was gloomy, and discouragement settled on the country. Washington was constantly losing men by sickness and desertion, until he had not more than five thousand under his command, while the British army was being reënforced by the deserters from Washington's army, as well as by numerous Tories. The British generals began to think that the war was near its close; Cornwallis was even packing up to return home. He thought that the Delaware would soon be bridged by ice and that he could then cross and capture Philadelphia, the rebel capital. After this his services would no longer be needed in America.

182. The Battle of Trenton. In order to raise the spirits of his troops and to remove the despair that seemed to be settling upon the country, Washington determined to attack the Hessians who were at Trenton. On Christmas night, in a blinding storm of snow and sleet, and amid drifting ice, he crossed the Delaware. Making a sudden attack, he captured one thousand Hessian soldiers and escaped to Pennsylvania with a loss of only four men. This victory gave fresh courage to the Americans; therefore Cornwallis decided to remain a little longer in America.



A HESSIAN SOLDIER

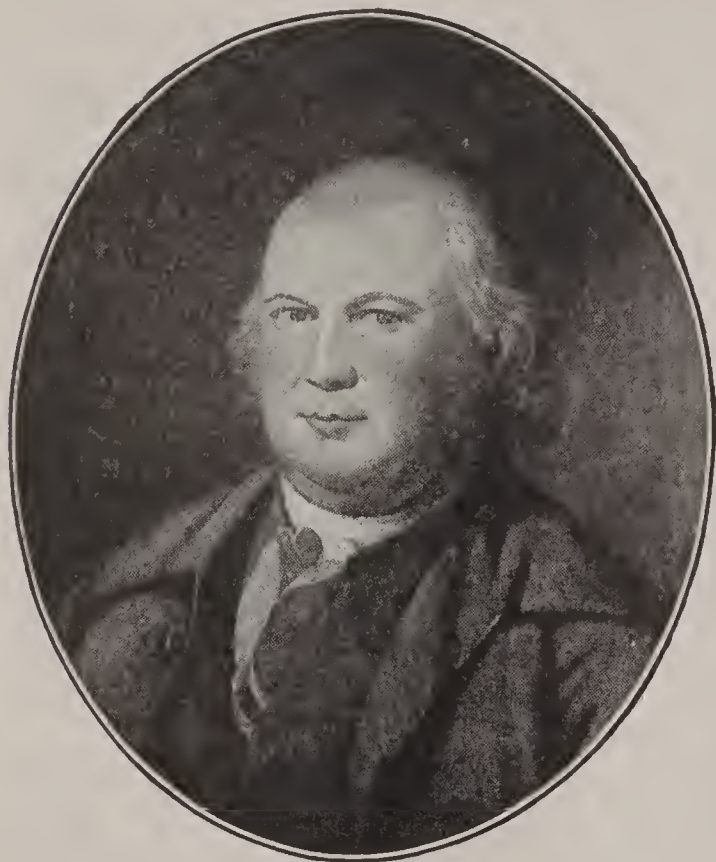
THIRD YEAR OF THE WAR—1777

183. The Battle of Princeton—Sore Straits. On January 2 Washington crossed the Delaware again and faced Cornwallis at Trenton. The latter remarked that now he had the “old fox” penned and would “bag” him in the morning. But, while a few of his men were making a show of throwing up earthworks, Washington, under cover of night, marched around Cornwallis, defeated his rear guard at Princeton, and captured several hundred prisoners, together with a much-needed supply of

powder and bullets. He then withdrew in safety to the Heights of Morristown, where he went into winter quarters. Cornwallis followed to Princeton, but finding that he was too late, returned to New York for the winter.

Washington's great military skill and his victories at Trenton and Princeton sent a thrill of joy throughout the country. But Washington still had many difficulties—the term of service of many soldiers was about to expire, and they were eager to get

back to their homes. Worst of all, they had received no pay to send to their families. Washington appealed for help to his friend, Robert Morris, a very wealthy banker of Philadelphia, who promptly raised a large sum of money. On several other occasions during the war Morris gave money to support the army. Final victory would have been impossible without the funds which he supplied, and, next to Washington, we owe American independence to the generosity of Robert Morris.

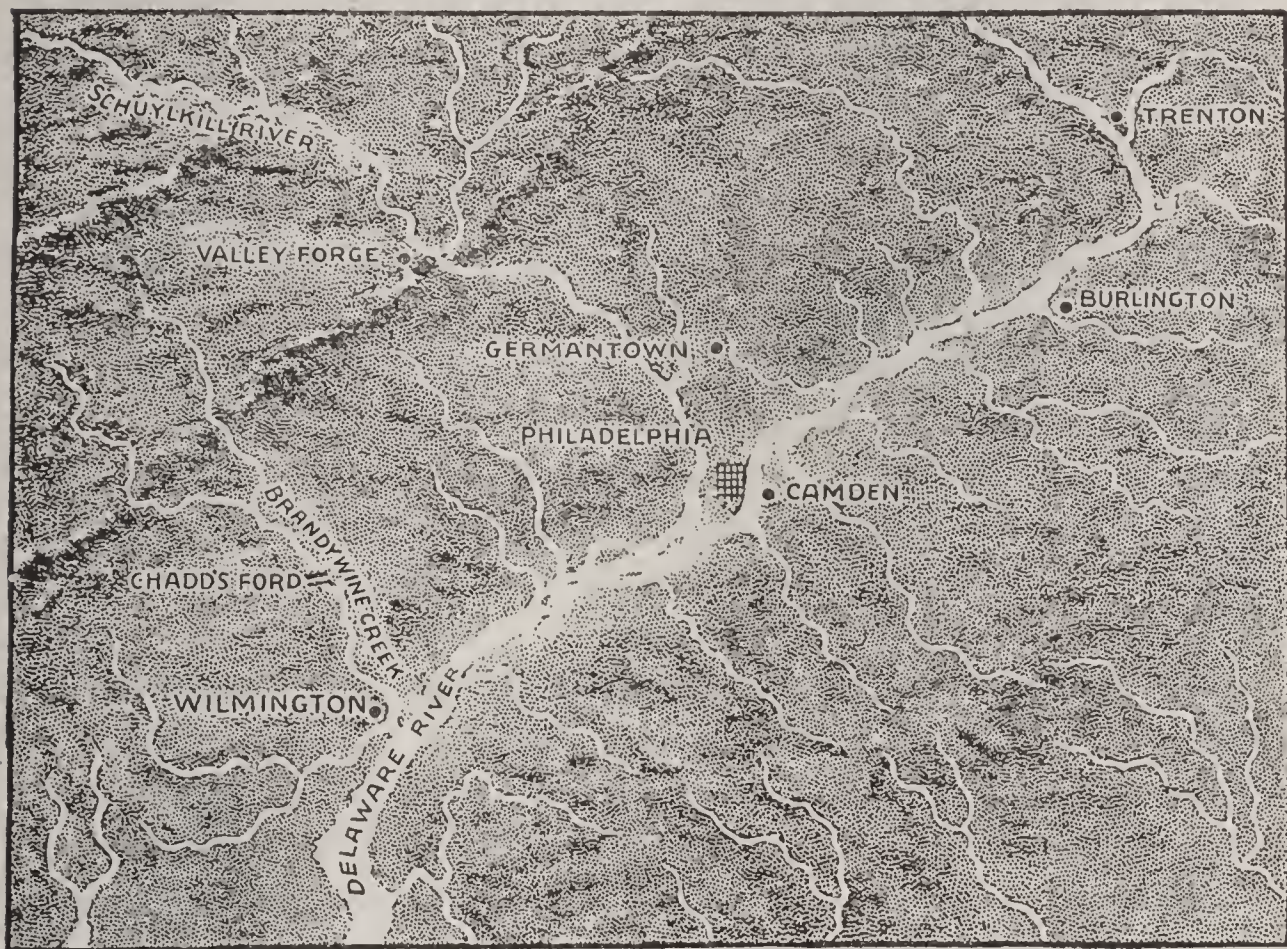


ROBERT MORRIS

184. Noble Foreigners Help America. Washington's successes were rapidly gaining recognition abroad; as a result, the distinguished foreigners Marquis Lafayette, from France, Baron DeKalb, a German in the service of France, Baron Steuben, a German soldier, and the brave Poles, Pulaski and Kosciusko, offered to Congress their services in the American army. These five officers merit the lasting gratitude of the American people.

CAMPAIGN IN PENNSYLVANIA

185. The Battles of Brandywine and Germantown. After spending the winter at New York, Howe sailed southward, in June, with eighteen thousand men. Washington, too, hurried south, and the armies met in battle at Brandywine Creek. The Americans were defeated by the superior number of the British



PHILADELPHIA AND VICINITY

troops, but Washington withdrew his army in good order to Philadelphia. Washington was unable to defend the city and Howe entered it in triumph, a week after the battle of Brandywine. The British then went into winter quarters there and also at Germantown. The noble foreign officers, Lafayette, De Kalb, and Pulaski, showed great bravery during the campaign in Pennsylvania.

In October, Washington surprised the British at Germantown, but failed to capture the town because of a dense fog which caused confusion in his own ranks. The Americans now made their winter camp at Valley Forge, twenty miles from Philadelphia.

CAMPAIGN IN NEW YORK—BURGOYNE'S INVASION

186. Plan of the Campaign. In 1777 the British planned to get control of the entire Hudson River. Their plan for accomplishing this was threefold:

- (a) Burgoyne was to come down from Canada by way of Lake Champlain and the Hudson;
- (b) St. Leger was to ascend the St. Lawrence and Lake Ontario, and finally join Burgoyne on the Hudson;
- (c) Howe was to march along the Hudson, capture the American forts, and join Burgoyne and St. Leger at Albany.

Howe, who had spent two months on the way from New York to Pennsylvania, was delayed for two additional months near Philadelphia, and thus was not able to carry out his part of the plan.

187. Capture of Crown Point, Ticonderoga, and Edward. To carry out his part of the campaign, General Burgoyne ascended the Sorel River and Lake Champlain with an army of about eight thousand men. In July he captured Forts Crown Point, Ticonderoga, and Edward, thus making a brilliant beginning. Very soon, however, he met with great difficulties. The country was swampy and heavily wooded, and Schuyler, who had been defeated at Ticonderoga and Crown Point because he could not hold the forts against the superior number of Burgoyne's troops, now greatly slowed up the progress of the latter by felling trees across the roads and destroying bridges. Burgoyne, moreover, had no supplies with him. They had to be sent to him from Canada, and the farther he advanced, the more difficult it was to procure them for his army.

188. The Battle of Oriskany. In the meantime St. Leger had succeeded in getting as far as Oriskany, near Fort Stanwix, where he met a small American army under General Herkimer. The British and Americans here fought one of the bloodiest battles of the war, the result of which was indecisive. Later, by a stratagem of Arnold, who had come with reënforcements, the British were driven from the fort.

189. The Battle of Bennington. Learning that the Americans had stored some provisions and military supplies at the village of Bennington, Vermont, Burgoyne sent a force to capture them. To encourage his soldiers, General Stark, the American officer, before the opening of the battle, exclaimed: "My fellow soldiers, we must conquer today or Molly Stark is a widow." His Vermont soldiers fought well and defeated the British.

190. The Battle of Bemis Heights. Burgoyne now found himself hemmed in by the rapidly increasing American forces under General Gates, who had replaced Schuyler. He crossed the Hudson and struggled onward down the west bank of the river toward the Mohawk, hoping to hear from either Howe or St. Leger. He met the Americans under Arnold and Morgan in the battle at Bemis Heights (September). The battle was undecided, but was followed by the defeat of the British at Stillwater, a little to the south of Bemis Heights.

Gates took no direct part in these battles and was not actually present on the field. He was a weak general of little ability, and the action of Congress in displacing Schuyler, against the wishes of Washington, has been generally considered unwise.



CONTINENTAL ARTILLERY

191. Burgoyne's Surrender at Saratoga—Results. The American forces, step by step, drove Burgoyne back to Saratoga, where, cut off from all supplies and almost completely surrounded by the American army, he surrendered to General Gates on October 17, after a desperate battle. His army of six thousand men laid down their arms. The third and last plan to gain control of the Hudson had ended in failure.

Though the surrender was made to General Gates, the credit of the victory belonged, first, to General Schuyler, because he had previously made the plans for managing the campaign, and, next, to the gallant leadership of Arnold and Morgan.

France now recognized the United States as an independent power. A treaty of alliance was made, France sending troops and a fleet to aid the Americans, and the colonies pledging not to make peace with England until the mother country acknowledged them as an independent nation. This treaty caused a war between France and England. King George III offered to grant the Americans almost anything they might demand except independence, but the Americans would accept nothing but independence.

192. The Articles of Confederation. At the same time that the Declaration of Independence was framed, a committee had been appointed to draw up a plan of government for the new nation. This plan, called the Articles of Confederation, was adopted by Congress in 1777 and by the State Assemblies between 1776 and 1781. By these Articles, or laws, the colonies were governed from 1781 until the Constitution was adopted in 1789.

Questions

1. Why did the British Army move against Lexington? What were the results? What work was done by the Second Continental Congress? Why do we remember Ethan Allen? Show on the map why Ticonderoga and Crown Point were important forts. What were the results of the Battle of Bunker Hill?

2. When was the Declaration of Independence signed? Which are the most serious grievances complained of in the Declaration?

3. Why did the British plan to capture New York? What were the results of the fighting there? On the map trace the retreat of the Americans from New York to Pennsylvania. Why was the victory of Trenton important?

4. What Europeans became interested in American success? What service did Robert Morris give?

5. Why did Howe approach Philadelphia from the direction of Brandywine Creek? Locate Valley Forge.

6. Show on the map the British campaign planned for 1777. Was it successful? What were the results of the alliance with France?

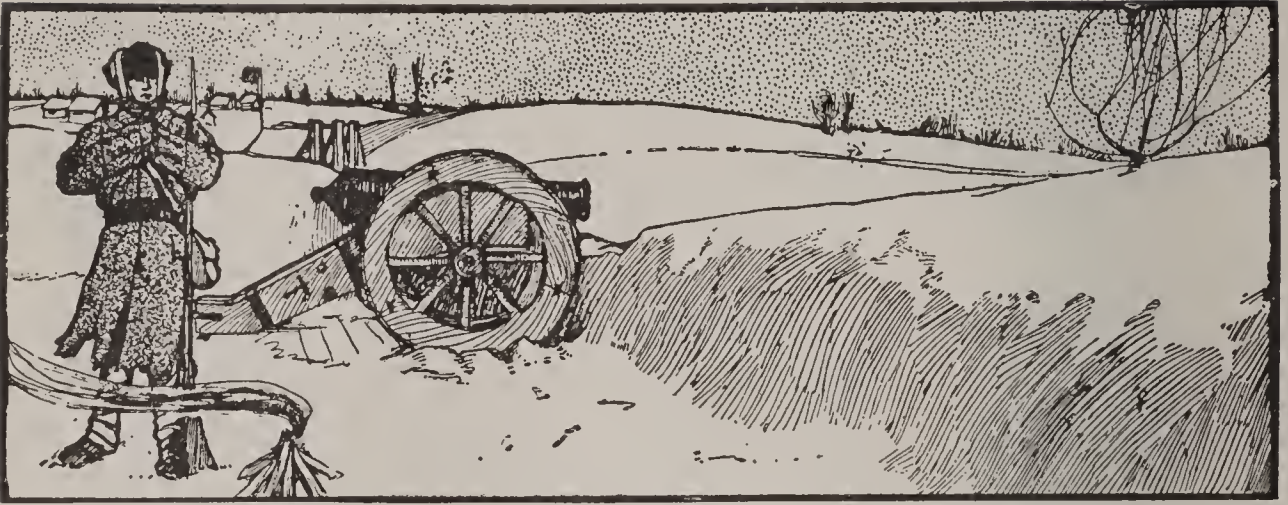
Theme Topics

1. Tell the story of Paul Revere's ride.
2. Write a short theme on the Battle of Bunker Hill.

CHAPTER XIV

SECOND PERIOD OF THE WAR—1777-1781

FOURTH YEAR OF THE WAR—1778



193. The Hardships at Valley Forge. While Howe and his soldiers were having an easy time in their winter quarters at Philadelphia, Washington and his army at Valley Forge were bravely struggling through the gloomiest season of the war. Owing to mismanagement by Congress and the Commissary Department (whose chief duty was to provide food and clothes for the army), the soldiers were poorly fed, clothed, and housed. But Washington's courage during that winter of terrible suffering inspired those about him. In spite of the hardships, he succeeded in enlisting many regiments to serve during the entire war. These new soldiers, called Continentals, were trained by Baron Steuben, who taught them how to shoot straight and to use the bayonet. By spring the disorderly recruits were organized into a well-trained army.

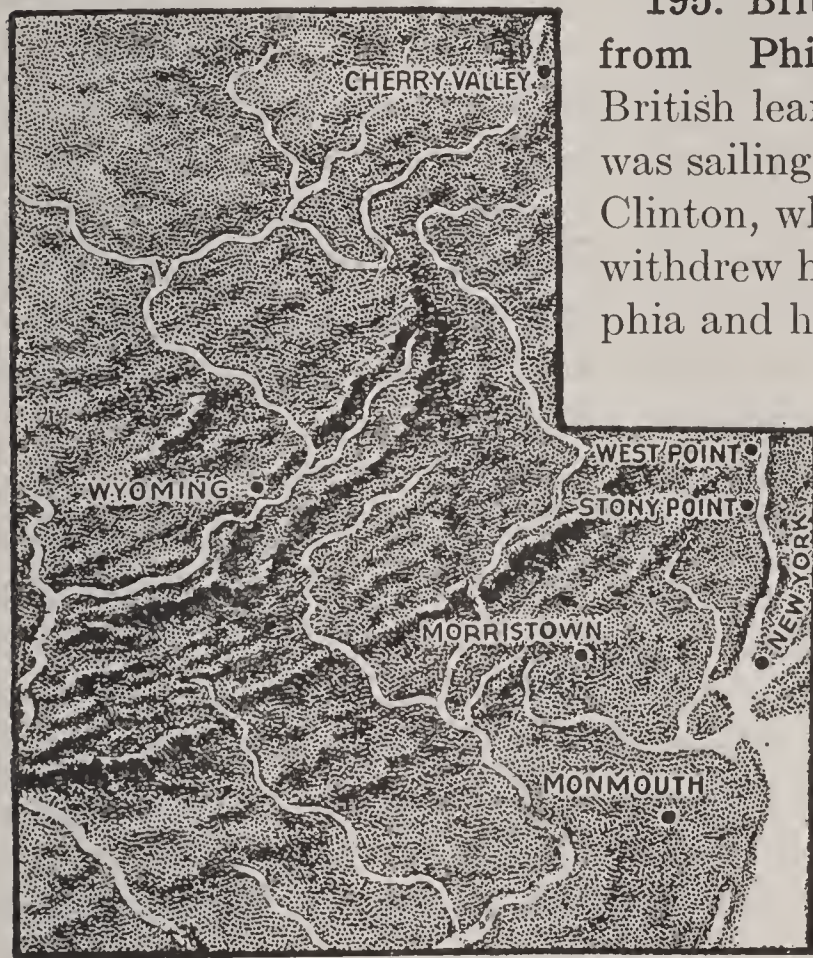
A touching story is told of Washington at Valley Forge. One day while Mr. Potts, Washington's host, passed through the woods, his attention was attracted by the sound of an earnest

voice. Upon approaching, Potts discovered the sorrow-burdened commander-in-chief on his knees, praying with tearful eyes. Potts related the incident to his wife, adding, "Under such a commander, the Americans will surely secure their independence."

194. The Conway Cabal. In addition to Washington's trials at Valley Forge, a conspiracy was formed against him. Jealous and ambitious men, who envied his fame, tried to have him removed from the army and to have Gates take his place. The movement, known as the Conway Cabal, from one of its leaders, not only proved a failure in its purpose, but served rather to raise Washington higher than ever in the esteem of his countrymen and to make his position stronger.

195. British Troops Withdraw from Philadelphia. When the British learned that a French fleet was sailing for the American coast, Clinton, who had succeeded Howe, withdrew his troops from Philadelphia and hastened to reënforce the army in New York.

196. The Battle of Monmouth. Washington followed Clinton across New Jersey and attacked him at Monmouth Court House on June 28, but was prevented from winning a decisive victory by the treachery of General



Charles Lee, who, instead of making an attack upon the enemy, ordered his troops to retreat. Washington checked the retreat, but he could not hinder Clinton from reaching New York.

197. Beginnings of Kentucky and Tennessee. While the American armies were fighting to win independence, explorers were still pushing westward and opening up new land. The territory north of the Ohio, between the Mississippi and the Alleghanies, was claimed by various colonies, on the authority of their original charters. A North Carolina hunter, Daniel Boone, with his family, began a settlement in Kentucky (1775), calling it Boonesboro. Other settlers followed him from Virginia and North Carolina. About the same time that Boone went to Kentucky, pioneers from North Carolina settled Tennessee, first on the Watauga River, and then at the present site of Nashville. Before the settlers could occupy the land, they had to conquer the Indians. James Robertson and John Sevier were two of the famous leaders under whose command the Cherokee Indians were defeated.

198. Indian Massacres. Horrible massacres by the Iroquois, which were encouraged by the British, occurred about this time in Pennsylvania and New York. General Sullivan, who was sent to punish the Indians, destroyed their crops and villages. In the winter following, the intense cold, together with starvation and disease, finished the work of destruction, and the power of the Indians in this section was broken forever.

199. Clark's Conquest of the Northwest. The British commander at Detroit planned to stir up the Indians of the West to attack the whole frontier and wipe out the new settlements. The governor of Virginia sent Major George Rogers Clark to seize the British posts between the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers. He first conquered the English forces at Kaskaskia and Cahokia. The French settlers, who made up a good part of the population, being influenced by Father Gibault, readily submitted. Clark next made friends with the Spanish at St. Louis, opposite Cahokia, and then advanced to Vincennes, the most important British post of the region. Through the friendly services of Father Gibault, Vincennes, too, yielded peaceably. Thus the Americans secured control of the whole Northwest, from Penn-

sylvania to the Mississippi, and from the Great Lakes to the Ohio. Next to Clark, the United States is indebted to the kindly services of Father Gibault for the addition of the Northwest Territory to the country. This good Father was for a long time the only priest in Illinois and Indiana. At the time of Clark's conquest of the Northwest, he not only persuaded the French as well as the Catholic Indians to submit without protest, but also encouraged them to support the American cause. He administered to them, in his own church, the oath of allegiance to Congress and blessed the arms of the volunteers in the war.

200. The British Make a New Plan for the War. In the meantime the English were renewing their efforts to defeat the colonies. They formed, in the latter part of 1778, a new plan for conquering America. The British army, starting at the South, was to move northward and cut off one state after another.

The British, under General Clinton, captured Savannah in December. A little later General Prevost, leading his forces northward from Florida, conquered the rest of Georgia. The new plan seemed to be working out well.

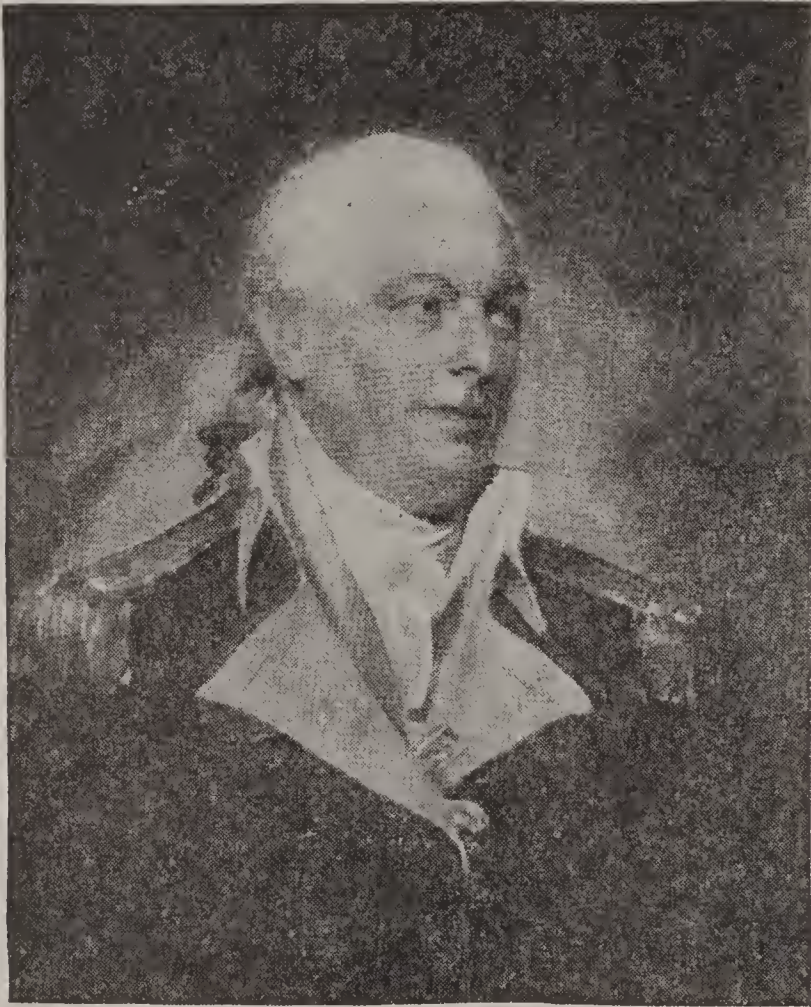
FIFTH YEAR OF THE WAR—1779

201. The Capture of Stony Point. Washington had begun to build forts on the Hudson River at Stony and Verplanck Points. Before Stony Point was completed, however, the British captured it, and Washington sent General Wayne to win it back. Wayne, who was called "Mad Anthony," because of his brilliant successes, became the popular hero of the Revolution. With the countersign, "The fort is ours," which he had accidentally learned, he deceived the sentinel and entered the fort with a force of picked men who had been trained by Steuben (July).

202. Privateering. England had little to fear from our navy, but she suffered much from American privateers (private vessels armed with guns or cannon). During the Revolution more than

seven hundred of these ships plowed the waters of the English Channel, the Irish Sea, and of many others part of the world, capturing six hundred British vessels, valued at many million dollars. As a result, so much harm was done to England's shipping that her ship-owners and merchants bitterly opposed the war, while the colonies were supporting their forces from captured British goods.

203. Exploits of John Barry. Captain John Barry, a native of Ireland and a Catholic, was one of the truest heroes of the



CAPTAIN JOHN BARRY

Revolution. He was distinguished for his skill in equipping and handling vessels, as well as for his bravery. He was commissioned early, and commanded the *Lexington* and the *Alfred*. As commander of the *Lexington*, Barry captured the British man-of-war *Edward*. He fought battles everywhere along the coast, inflicting such heavy losses on the enemy that in 1794 Congress placed him at the head of the commanders in the navy. He was the first to hold the rank

of commodore. He is justly called the "Father and Founder of the American Navy."

204. Paul Jones's Triumph. John Paul Jones, a lieutenant in the navy, won for America the greatest triumph on the sea.

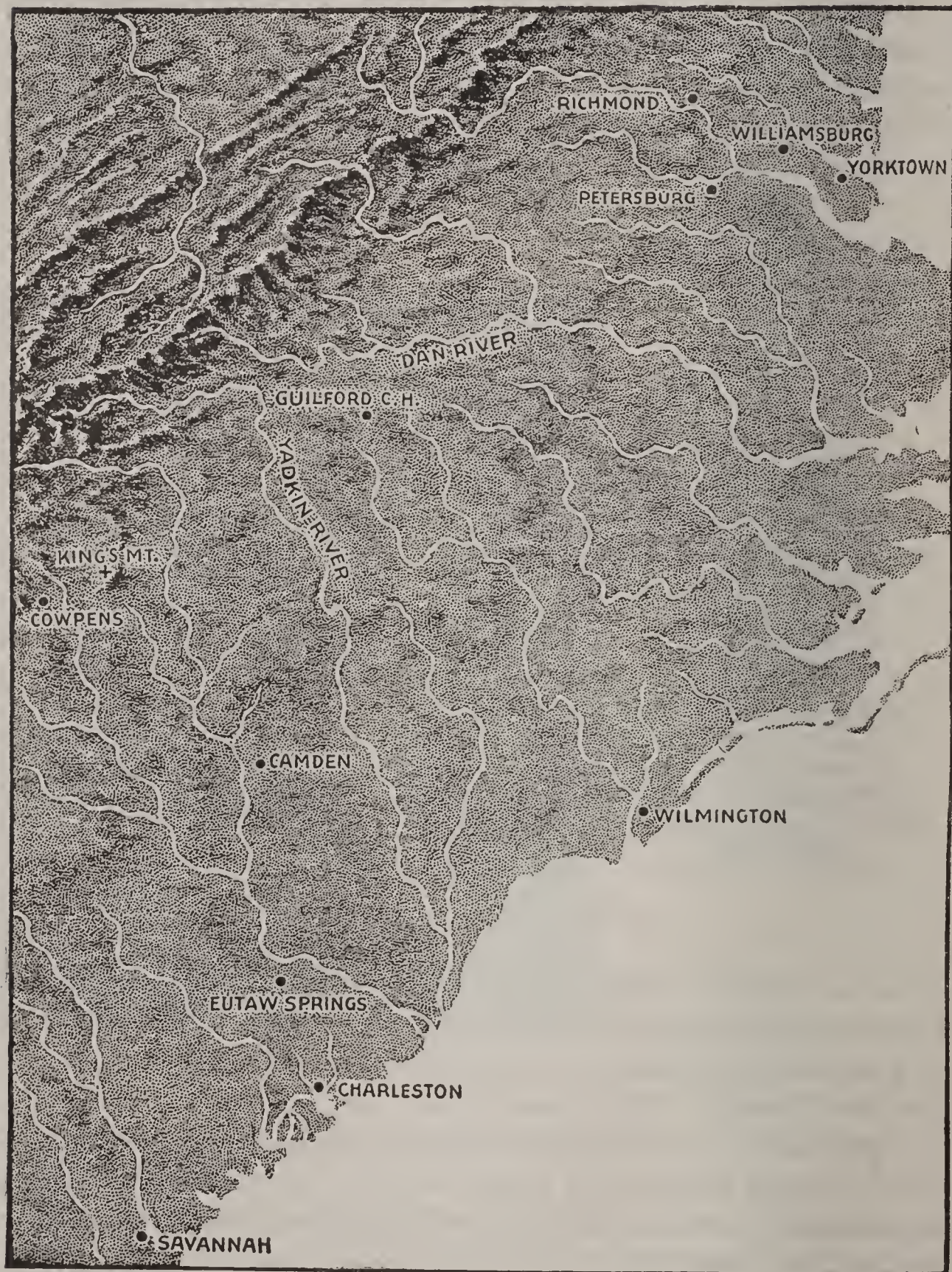
In his little ship *Ranger* (1778) he constantly attacked British vessels; at one time he would dash in and set fire to a ship at anchor; at another, pounce down upon a vessel at sea, and then again, like a gust of wind, whirl about and be off, out of harm's reach. With the help of Franklin and the French king, Louis XVI, Jones was at length placed in command of a small squadron of three vessels. To his flagship he gave the name of *Bon*



A SEA FIGHT OF THE PERIOD

Homme Richard. With the American flag flying from its mast-head, he set sail with his little squadron and met in September, at Flamborough Head, two English men-of-war, the *Serapis* and the *Scarborough*. He at once gave chase and coming up to the *Serapis*, lashed her and his own ship together. After a deadly hand-to-hand fight which raged far into the night, the *Serapis* surrendered. Meanwhile the *Scarborough* had been captured by one of the other ships. This battle was one of the most des-

perate ever fought upon the ocean, and it greatly humiliated England, "the proud Mistress of the Sea."



SIXTH YEAR OF THE WAR—1780

205. The British Take Charleston. In May Clinton and Cornwallis, together with Prevost, moved against Charleston, which they bombarded. Benjamin Lincoln, who commanded the American forces in the South, held the city. He was cut off from escape and was forced to surrender, with about three thousand continentals. The capture of Lincoln's army, the severest blow the Americans had yet received, left South Carolina in the hands of Lord Cornwallis.

206. The Battle of Camden. Congress now recalled Gates and placed him in command of the Southern army. He hastily collected a new army in North Carolina, including De Kalb and his brave continentals. In August he advanced to Camden, where he met Cornwallis and was badly defeated. De Kalb fell, mortally wounded, while his comrades fought in vain to hold their ground. Gates, after a number of blunders, rode panic-stricken from the field, leaving the army to its fate. This was the second American army destroyed in the South in three months, and the whole section was practically in the hands of the British. After his cowardly act Gates retired from the service in disgrace.

207. The Battle of King's Mountain. Cornwallis now pushed on toward North Carolina, but hearing that one of his officers, Major Ferguson, had been defeated in a battle at King's Mountain (October) by a body of backwoodsmen, he returned to South Carolina in order to maintain control of the South. The American victory at King's Mountain greatly crippled Cornwallis, for in it he lost some four hundred of his men, including Ferguson, one of the bravest of the British officers.

208. Exploits of the Partisan Corps. South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida were in the hands of the British and at the mercy of the British Tories; but the state militia under the heroic leaders, Marion, Sumter, Pickens, and Henry Lee gave the British little peace. These citizen soldiers, composing small

bands of patriots, often less than one hundred men, were called "partisan corps." Their way of fighting surprised the British even more than that used by the minute-men at Lexington and Concord. Armed with home-made swords, they rode the fastest horses, hid in swamps and mountains, and seldom slept two nights in the same place. They would destroy a Tory camp, cut off the stragglers from the main army, dash pellmell into the enemy's quarters, and be off, safe and sound in a distant hiding place almost before anyone knew what had happened. Marion, who was called by the British "the swamp fox," became particularly famous. Sumter, equally daring, was considered by Cornwallis "the greatest plague in the country."

209. Arnold's Treason. To complete the year of disaster, Benedict Arnold, who had won distinction at Ticonderoga, Quebec, and Saratoga, deserted the patriot cause and became a traitor. He secretly agreed to surrender West Point to Clinton for a reward of thirty thousand dollars and a general's commission in the British army. Since it controlled the whole line of the Hudson, it was the most important post in the country.

After the withdrawal of Clinton from Philadelphia, Washington had given the command of the city to Arnold, who here lived very extravagantly. Finally he was court-martialed for the misuse of government money, found guilty of imprudence, and sentenced to be publicly reprimanded by the commander-in-chief. Washington, however, mindful of Arnold's brilliant deeds in the service of his country, performed the unpleasant duty with great gentleness, sparing Arnold's feeling as much as possible, and giving him high praise.

Nevertheless Arnold, feeling that he had been mistreated, planned revenge. Pretending that the severe wounds received at Quebec and Saratoga unfitted him for field duty, he asked and obtained from Washington the command of West Point. He now saw his opportunity; he met the British agent, Major André, some distance south of West Point and made arrangements for the surrender of the fort.

The traitor escaped and was given a command in the British army. After the war he lived in England and was universally despised. Arnold carefully preserved his old uniform in which he had made his escape from West Point, and just before his death he asked to be clothed in it. "Let me die," said he, "in this old uniform in which I fought my battles. May God forgive me for ever putting on any other."

210. The Capture of André. Major André, after having made arrangements with Arnold for the surrender of West Point, prepared to return to the British camp. He found that his ship, the *Vulture*, had floated down the river, and he was obliged to cross the stream and proceed by land. Near Tarrytown he was captured by the Americans. Upon searching André they found in his stockings papers containing plans of the fort. André was tried and hanged as a spy (October) according to the rules of warfare.

SEVENTH YEAR OF THE WAR—1781

211. The Beginning of Winning Back the South—The Battle of Cowpens. The American victory at King's Mountain was the beginning of the winning back of the South. By the advice of Washington, General Nathanael Greene was now appointed to succeed General Gates in the South. With the aid of Daniel Morgan, Steuben, and the leaders of the "partisan corps," and with the remnant of De Kalb's continentals as a nucleus, Greene succeeded in raising a third army in the South. He now sent General Morgan against Tarleton, Cornwallis's ablest officer. The two armies met, in January, at Cowpens, South Carolina, where Morgan not only defeated Tarleton's army, but nearly destroyed it.

212. Greene's Masterly Retreat. Morgan, with his prisoners, hurried off and joined General Greene in North Carolina. When Cornwallis pursued the victors across the Carolinas, Greene led him far away from his base of supplies at Charleston, and finally made a narrow escape across the Dan into Virginia. Here

Cornwallis gave up the chase; Greene promptly gathered additional troops, recrossed the Dan into North Carolina, and fought the British near Guilford Court House, in a battle that proved a defeat for the Americans, but was at the same time a costly victory for the British.

After this battle, Cornwallis withdrew to Wilmington where communication with the English fleet at Charleston would be easy. From here he was shortly afterward ordered by Clinton



CONTINENTAL CURRENCY

to the peninsula of Yorktown, Virginia, which he proceeded to fortify.

213. Greene's Recovery of the South. Greene had followed Cornwallis far enough to see him closed up in Wilmington. Then sure of having him out of the way, he marched farther south, and with the help of Marion, Sumter, and Lee, drove the British and Tories before him toward Charleston. After this Greene won many small victories with the help of Lee and Marion, and within thirteen months he had recovered the Carolinas and Georgia from British rule.

214. Cornwallis Entrapped at Yorktown—Siege of Yorktown. Washington, hearing that a powerful French fleet was coming toward Chesapeake Bay, saw his opportunity. His army on the Hudson had been reënforced by six thousand French troops

under Count Rochambeau. Leaving behind a small force, Washington secretly slipped away to the head of Chesapeake Bay. From there the French fleet carried the army to Yorktown, where Washington joined Lafayette before Clinton knew what had happened. The French fleet at once blocked the James and York Rivers, and Cornwallis was shut up in a trap. For several weeks the Americans bombarded the British works. Escape by sea or land being impossible for Cornwallis, he and his whole army, about eight thousand strong, surrendered to Washington on October 19, 1781. The fall of Yorktown practically ended the War of Independence.

215. The Scene of Surrender. A large crowd of citizens assembled to witness the scene of surrender. The troops were drawn up in two columns extending more than a mile. On the one side were the French forces, headed by Rochambeau, on the other, Washington and his continentals. The conquered army, with colors cased, slowly marched out between the ranks while the British military band played the quaint melody, "The World Upside Down." Cornwallis, pretending that he was ill, did not appear, but sent his sword by General O'Hara. Washington ordered that the sword be delivered to General Lincoln, who, eighteen months before, had surrendered his to Clinton at Charleston. The defeated army was next led by Lincoln to an open field where they laid down their arms.

The news of this important event reached Congress at midnight, four days afterwards. Every heart bounded with joy as the watchman pacing the streets of Philadelphia cried aloud, "Past two o'clock and Cornwallis is taken!" The streets were soon thronged with happy men and women. The State House bell rang out its notes of gladness.

To the English government the news came like a death blow, for the victory of Yorktown meant not only the independence of America, but also the overthrow of the power of the King in England. The King was soon compelled to dismiss his Tory prime minister, Lord North, and call back to power those very

Whigs who were friends of America. Among them were Fox, the younger Pitt, Barré, and Burke.

216. The Treaty of Peace. A treaty of peace was signed with England by the United States, France, and Spain, at Paris, on September 3, 1783. Benjamin Franklin, John Jay, and John Adams signed it for America. By this treaty:

- (a) The United States was recognized as an independent nation;
- (b) the boundaries fixed were the Great Lakes and the St.

Lawrence on the north, the Mississippi on the west, and Florida on the south;

- (c) Florida was given to Spain.

Questions

1. What pioneers explored the West during the early years of the Revolutionary War? What territory was added to the United States by the work of George Rogers Clark? Compare the extent of this territory with the thirteen original colonies.

2. Why do we remember General Wayne? John Barry? Paul Jones?

3. What was the "Partisan Corps"? How did General Greene win back the South?

4. How did Washington hasten the surrender of Cornwallis? What part did France play? What were the terms of the treaty of 1783?

Theme Topics

- 1. The Capture of Kaskaskia.
- 2. Father Gibault at Vincennes.

CHAPTER XV

THE CRITICAL PERIOD OF OUR HISTORY—1781-1789

THE ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION

217. Defects of Government Under the Articles of Confederation. The critical period of our history is that extending from the siege of Yorktown in 1781 to the adoption of the Constitution in 1789. The thirteen states had won their independence, but the new nation had many difficulties to overcome. The Articles of Confederation under which the colonies were governed during this period did not make them a nation, but merely formed them into a league of states, each with its own independent government. How to make permanent the blessings obtained by the recent long and bloody struggle was the great problem that remained to be solved.

Under the Articles, Congress had little power. It could make laws on a few subjects, but it had no power to enforce them. It could not levy taxes, but could only make "requisitions" on the states which it had no power to collect. Revenue could not be raised, and therefore the debts of the nation could not be paid. As a result the government had no credit, and could not regulate commerce. In fact, Congress could merely recommend or advise, possessing only such powers as the states gave it.

218. Disunion Among the States. During the war, the bond of a common cause had united the colonies. When the war was over, the old jealousies and conflicting interests returned. The states quarreled with each other about boundary lines, about commerce, about trade; and the same spirit that made them desire to be free from the mother country made them distrust Congress and shrink from giving it authority. Naturally distrust

and discontent grew worse and worse. The thirteen states were fast drifting apart and becoming thirteen hostile nations.

It is not to be thought, however, that the people were without government during this time. All the states adopted new constitutions (1775-1781) except Rhode Island and Connecticut, which retained their liberal colonial charters. But each constitution created a complete government for the state, making no provision for uniting the thirteen states.

219. Defects in the Confederation. There were three main defects in the Confederation which soon proved so serious that they forced the people to realize the need of a stronger national government. These defects were:

- (a) Congress could not pay the debts which it incurred;
- (b) it could not regulate trade;
- (c) it lacked the authority to preserve order.

220. Drift Toward Monarchy Because Congress Cannot Pay National Debts. Congress, as we have seen, having no power to levy taxes, could not pay the country's debts. The large sums borrowed from foreign nations were soon spent, while paper money was almost worthless. The unpaid, poverty-stricken soldiers with their families suffered most because of this weakness of the government. The army plotted against the government, and was ready to take up arms against Congress, but Washington prevented this. The soldiers then tried to make Washington king—a step that would have established a monarchy, the form of government against which they had rebelled and from which they had fought so long to free themselves. Washington refused their offer, rebuking them for such folly.

221. Commerce Suffers Because Congress Cannot Regulate Trade. Great Britain refused to make a commercial treaty with America, because she knew that any state might break a treaty. She closed her West India ports against American merchants and imposed a high duty on American imports. Congress, without power to regulate trade, could not levy duties on English goods. In this unequal state of affairs, American

shipbuilding and foreign commerce were almost destroyed. Our domestic trade also suffered. The states by their navigation laws and high tariffs were making commercial war upon one another. New York, for instance, taxed the products coming to its markets from Connecticut and New Jersey, while New Jersey levied a tax of some eighteen hundred dollars upon a lighthouse built by New York City at Sandy Hook. Similar troubles arose between other states. Under these conditions the United States was rapidly losing its standing abroad.

222. Difficulties Arising from the Fact That Congress Cannot Preserve Order. Congress did not have the command of a single soldier, and could not protect even itself from insult; it was driven from Philadelphia on one occasion by a band of mutinous soldiers. Naturally it had no power to protect the rights of citizens.

After the Revolution, our imports had to be paid for in specie (that is, actual coin—usually gold or silver). The country's imports were so much more than its exports that it had soon spent most of its gold and silver. Owing to this scarcity of specie and the worthlessness of paper money, the people found it impossible to pay their taxes and debts. Their lands, cattle, and products were taken for taxes and mortgages, while the debtors themselves were thrown into prison. In almost every state the debtor classes tried to find ways of freeing themselves from their debts. Some demanded the issue of paper money, while others demanded the so-called Stay Laws, to delay the collection of debts. Still others demanded Tender Laws, which permitted a debtor to offer goods, at certain rates, in payment of his debts.

Shays's Rebellion was another outcome of the inability of Congress to preserve order. In western Massachusetts several hundred angry farmers, under Daniel Shays, a captain of the Revolutionary War, rose in insurrection. They sought to close the court houses and to stop law suits against debtors, and even tried to seize the arsenal at Springfield for the purpose of secur-

ing muskets and cannon. After some months the rebellion was subdued by the state militia.

223. A National Land System Forms a Bond of Union Between the States. Seven of the thirteen states claimed the country as far west as the Mississippi, whereas the remaining six states, having fixed western boundaries, could not claim any part of these western lands. Four of these seven states—Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, and Virginia—claimed the Northwest Territory, the stretch of country between the Ohio and the Great Lakes and between the Alleghanies and the Mississippi, which had been won by Clark's conquest. In these conflicting claims, which led to bitter disputes, Maryland took a leading part, refusing to ratify the Articles of Confederation until these states should give up all their claims to the national government for the common good.

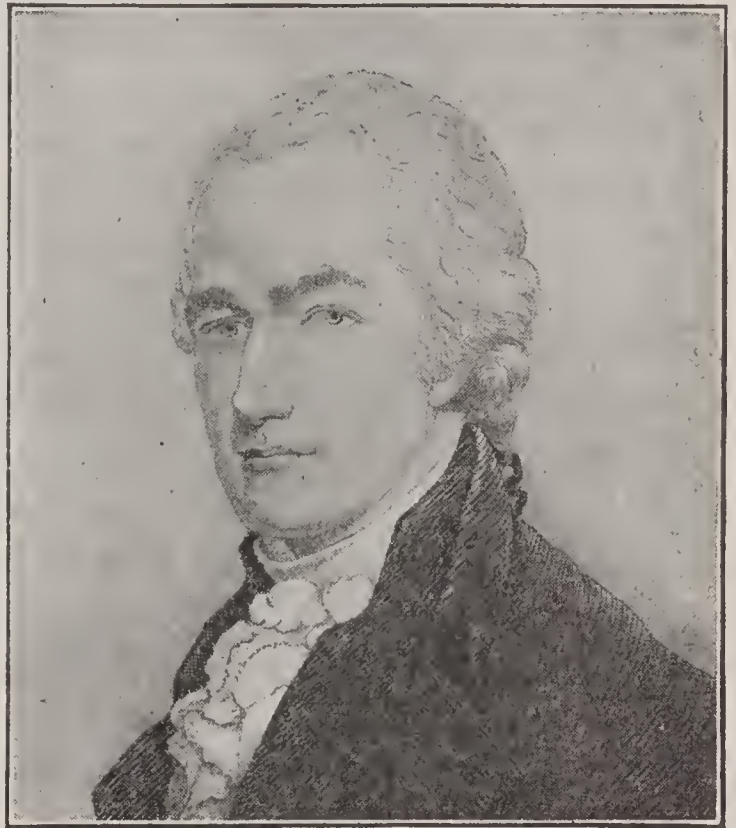
After long and heated discussions, New York finally yielded her claims. Following her example, the remaining six states, one by one, withdrew their claims. The common possession of the Northwest Territory did much to hold the states together, and in securing national control Maryland had done the nation a great service.

224. The Ordinance of 1787. Now that the Northwest Territory belonged to the country as a whole, many New Englanders wanted to settle in the present state of Ohio. The Congress of the Confederation, in one of its last and best acts, passed the famous Ordinance of 1787. This measure provided for the government of the Northwest Territory, which was to be divided into five sections. In each state education was to be encouraged, religious freedom granted, and slavery prohibited.

225. First Steps Toward a National Convention. Virginia and Maryland, wishing to come to some agreement concerning the use of Chesapeake Bay and the Potomac, sent their delegates for this purpose to Alexandria (1785). These delegates wisely concluded that since the states trading with Virginia and Massachusetts would be affected by such a commercial treaty,

all the states ought to take part and help to frame some general laws for the regulation of trade. Therefore a circular letter was sent to all the states inviting them to join in a great trade convention to be held in the following year at Annapolis.

Since delegates from only five states (Virginia, Delaware, Pennsylvania, New York, and New Jersey) responded to the call, nothing final could be accomplished. It was clear also that even if all the states should agree on laws for regulating trade, such laws would be of no avail without a central authority to enforce them. So, before adjourning, the delegates agreed on a resolution, written by Alexander Hamilton, which proposed that Congress call a great national convention, to be held in Philadelphia, for the purpose of amending the Articles of Confederation.



ALEXANDER HAMILTON

226. The Convention Frames and Adopts the Constitution. The Convention met in Philadelphia on May 25, 1787. Fifty-five delegates, the ablest men of the states, who had been steadily at work trying to bring unity to the nation, attended the convention. The assembly remained in secret session almost four months. Dissatisfied with the old Articles of Confederation, the delegates decided to do away with them, and to frame an entirely new Constitution. This was a very bold resolve, since the states had sent their delegates with the understanding that the Articles of Confederation were to be revised. Four plans of government were offered by the dele-

gates. After many stormy debates and compromises, the Constitution of the United States was framed and adopted by the convention (September 17, 1787). Thirty-nine of the fifty-five delegates signed the document. The other sixteen would not sign, objecting to certain clauses which they believed interfered with the rights of the states.

227. The Constitution, a Series of Compromises. The Constitution was a series of compromises between the larger and the smaller states; between the Federalists, who upheld the Constitution, and the Anti-Federalists, who opposed its adoption; and between the North and the South. It was chiefly on the basis of the following four compromises that the Constitution was adopted by the convention:

- (a) The Connecticut compromise, which provided for equal representation in the Senate, was framed to satisfy the small states; while to pacify the large states, representation in the House of Representatives was to be proportioned to the population, and all bills for raising money were to arise in this House;
- (b) to please the South, five negroes were to be counted as equal to three white persons in determining the representation; while to favor the North the same proportion of negro population was to be considered for direct taxation;
- (c) to please the South, the foreign slave trade was to continue without interference for twenty years (1808). No duties were ever to be paid on exports. To please the North, Congress should have power to regulate commerce by a majority vote, instead of a two-thirds vote;
- (d) to satisfy the Federalists, the President was vested with great power. He was entrusted with the enforcement of all laws and was made commander-in-chief of the army and navy. The Anti-Federalists were pacified by a provision in the Constitution for checking the authority of the chief executive in numerous ways, in case he should try to abuse his trust.

228. The Plan of the Constitution. According to the Constitution the government was divided into three departments: (a) the legislative, or law-making power, vested in Congress; (b) the judiciary, or law-interpreting power, vested in the Supreme Court and inferior courts; (c) the executive, or law-enforcing power, vested in a President, a Vice-president, and other officers.

Congress was to consist of two Houses: the House of Representatives, elected by the people, and the Senate, elected by the state legislatures.

229. The States Ratify the Constitution. Congress submitted the Constitution to the states for ratification. The people of each state chose delegates to conventions which should accept or reject the new plan of government.

Great excitement and stirring discussions for and against the Constitution at once arose and divided the people into two parties. The Federalists were led by Washington, Madison and Hamilton. The Anti-Federalists were led by the brilliant statesmen Jefferson, Patrick Henry, Samuel Adams, and John Hancock. They were jealous of Congress fearing that too much national power might lead to the establishment of a monarchy. The Federalists and Anti-Federalists were our first political parties.

Within a year (before August, 1788) all the states except Rhode Island and North Carolina adopted the Constitution. These two states, which were treated as foreign nations, soon came to terms (1789-1790). Some of the states ratified the Constitution in the hope that amendments guaranteeing protection to the life, liberty, and property of the people, and securing them against the perils which existed before the war would be added.

The new Constitution when ratified by eleven states was presented to the Congress of the Confederation (September 20, 1788), then sitting in the City Hall in New York. This body declared it ratified, and ordered that the government under it should go

into effect March 4, 1789, in the city of New York. With this act the Congress of the Confederation closed its last session.

230. The Constitution—Bill of Rights. The Constitution of the United States may be defined as a written document, explaining how our government is organized and what powers the various parts have. The government under the Constitution was far stronger than the one it replaced. The national government was no longer dependent upon the wishes of the various states, but was supreme in all that concerned the nation at large. It had the sole power to coin money, regulate commerce, fix weights and measures, declare war, and negotiate treaties with foreign nations. Each state, however, still had much power; it had control over all its individual affairs, and could exercise all powers of government not given by the Constitution to the national government. The purpose and provisions of the Constitution are set forth in its preamble. (See Appendix.)

As framed and adopted by the thirteen original states, the Constitution was the same that we still have, with the exception of some nineteen amendments (1923). The new Congress, organized after the adoption of the Constitution, submitted (1789) to the state legislatures twelve amendments, ten of which were ratified in 1791 and added to the Constitution as the Bill of Rights. These amendments may be regarded as a part of the original Constitution.

231. Washington Chosen as First President. In the first presidential election (1789), George Washington was unanimously chosen President. The people of the country looked upon him as the greatest man in the United States, and they believed that no one else could better guide the affairs of the new nation. John Adams was chosen Vice-president.

232. Patriotism Among Catholics. We have seen that the discovery and exploration of America and the christianizing and civilizing of the Indians were chiefly Catholic enterprises; also that the colonial times were dark and intolerant for Catholics. The opposition of the colonies to the Quebec Act proved

plainly that the old anti-Catholic prejudices were still very much alive. During the war, however, the colonial Catholics, forgetting the many wrongs of the past, unanimously supported the patriot cause, distinguishing themselves not only in the army and navy, but also in council halls and legislatures. In the day of trial the Catholic faith proved the grandeur of its principles. It produced no traitors, no oppressors of their country. After the American alliance with Catholic France, the law excluding Catholics from civil rights was repealed. With this event dawned a new era for Catholicity in America.

Among prominent Catholic leaders in the army may be mentioned: Stephen Moylan; the French counts, Lafayette and Rochambeau; the noble Poles, Kosciusko and Pulaski; and the German barons, Steuben and De Kalb. Stephen Moylan occupied offices of trust in the American army and rounded out the full measure of his service with General Greene in the southern campaign



PULASKI

at the close of the war. William Paca, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, held numerous political offices in his own state, and was a member of the State convention which ratified the federal Constitution. Thomas Fitzsimmon was a member of the First Continental Congress, took part in the Trenton campaign, and was a member of the convention that framed the Constitution of the United States. Daniel Carroll of Maryland was the only other Catholic member of this convention.

Eminent Catholics in the navy were Captain John Barry and Jeremiah O'Brien. Catholics who figured prominently in Congress were the famous Charles and Daniel Carroll, William Paca, and Thomas Fitzsimmon. There was an entire Catholic

regiment, sons of Ireland, in the Pennsylvania line. Washington's personal guard, the flower and choice of the army, was largely composed of Catholics.

At the close of the war a solemn "Te Deum" was chanted (November 4, 1781) in one of the Catholic churches in Philadelphia. Members of the United States Congress, Washington, Lafayette, and many of the distinguished generals and citizens attended the service.

The Catholics of the United States, in common with their fellow-citizens, hailed with joy the election of George Wash-

ington as first President under the new Constitution. Before the inauguration, Bishop Carroll, on behalf of the Catholic clergy, united with the representatives of the Catholic laity (Charles Carroll of Carrollton, Daniel Carroll of Maryland, Dominic Lynch of New York, and Thomas Fitzsimon of Pennsylvania) in an address of congratulation to the new President. The memorable and cordial reply of Washington "To the Roman Catholics of the United States" was as follows: "I hope ever to see America among the foremost nations in examples of



LAFAYETTE

justice and liberality; and I presume that your fellow-citizens will not forget the patriotic part which you took in the accomplishment of their Revolution, and the establishment of their government, or the important assistance they received from a nation in which the Roman Catholic faith is professed. . . . May the members of your Society in America, animated alone by the pure spirit of Christianity, and still conducting themselves

as the faithful subjects of our free government, enjoy every temporal and spiritual felicity.”

We may fittingly close this eventful epoch with the following extract from the Pastoral Letter of the Fathers of the Third Plenary Council of Baltimore (December 7, 1884):

“We consider the establishment of our Country’s independence, the shaping of its Liberties and Laws, as a work of special Providence; its framers ‘building better than they knew,’ the Almighty’s Hand guiding them.”

Questions

1. Why is the period between 1781 and 1789 called the critical period? What were the important defects in the Articles of Confederation? What unhappy conditions resulted because of these defects?
2. How did Maryland help bring about union among the quarreling states? What states were later formed from the northwest territory? What were the important provisions of the Ordinance of 1787?
3. Describe the steps taken toward a National Convention.
4. Describe the four main compromises in the Constitution. Describe the process of ratifying the Constitution.
5. What five absolute powers did the national government now have, which made it stronger than under the Articles of Confederation?

Theme Topics

1. Prepare and be able to give orally during the language class a description of Washington’s election.
2. Prepare and be able to give orally during the language class a sketch of our first American Bishop, John Carroll.

CHRONOLOGICAL REVIEW

1765-1776

George III is King of England, Ireland, Scotland, and Wales, and of the English colonies in America.

Louise XV reigns in France.

George III. 1760-1820.

- 1765. The Stamp Act is passed (March 22).
The Stamp Act Congress meets in New York City (October).
- 1766. The Stamp Act is repealed (March 18).
- 1767. The Townshend Acts are passed (June).
- 1768. The British troops arrive in Boston (September).
- 1770. The Boston Massacre occurs (March).
The Townshend Acts, with the exception of a tax on tea, are repealed (April 12).
- 1773. The Boston Tea Party occurs (December 16).
- 1774. The "Five Intolerable Acts" are passed (March 31).
The First Continental Congress meets in Philadelphia (September 5).
- 1775. The War begins with Battle of Lexington; American victory over the British under Pitcairn (April 19).
Ethan Allen and Benedict Arnold capture Ticonderoga (May 10).
The Second Continental Congress assembles (May).
Washington is chosen commander-in-chief (June 15).
The Americans under Prescott suffer a "victorious" defeat from the British under Gage at Bunker Hill. General Warren is killed (June 17).
Washington takes command and organizes a continental army (July).
- 1776. The Americans under Washington force the British under Howe to evacuate Boston (March 17).

Captain John Barry captures the British man-of-war *Edward* (April 7).

The British under Clinton are repulsed at Charleston by the American garrison, in command of Colonel Moultrie (June 28).

George III hires Hessians from Germany to fight against the colonies.

Declaration of Independence adopted July 4, 1776.

1776-1784

The Continental Congress and the various State governments rule in America.

George III is King of England, Ireland, Scotland, and Wales.

Louis XVI reigns in France.

1776. The Americans under Sullivan are defeated by the British under Howe in the Battle of Long Island (August 27).

The Americans are defeated in the White Plains and Harlem skirmishes by the British under Howe (October).

The British commanded by Howe take Forts Washington and Lee on the Hudson (November).

Washington and his troops retreat through New Jersey (November and December).

The Americans commanded by Washington capture the Hessians at Trenton (December 25).

1777. Morris raises money to save the army (January).

The Americans under Washington win battle at Princeton against the British under Howe (January 2).

Lafayette and companions arrive in America.

Congress adopts the Stars and Stripes as the American flag (June 14).

Burgoyne captures Forts Ticonderoga, Crown Point, and Edward (July).

The Americans under Herkimer and Arnold defeat the British under St. Leger in a bloody battle at Oriskany (August 2).

General Schuyler is succeeded by General Gates (August 10).

The Americans under Gates win battle of Bennington against the British under Burgoyne (August 16).

The Americans under Washington are defeated by the British under Howe in the battle of Brandywine (September 11).

Congress leaves Philadelphia for New York (September 19).

The Americans under Gates fight an indecisive battle against the British under Burgoyne at Bemis Heights (September).

The British take possession of Philadelphia and encamp there and at Germantown (September 25, 26).

The Americans under Washington are defeated by the British under Howe at Germantown (October 4).

Burgoyne surrenders to Gates (October 17).

The Continental Congress adopts the Articles of Confederation (November 15).

Washington goes into winter quarters at Valley Forge (December 11).

Conway forms a conspiracy against Washington.

1778. France acknowledges the independence of the United States and gives aid (February 6).

Baron Steuben helps Washington to discipline his army (May).

England offers to make peace (June).

The British leave Philadelphia for New York (June 18).

The Americans under Washington attack the British under Clinton at Monmouth Court House (June 28).

Washington encamps at White Plains.

The Tories and Iroquois massacre inhabitants (November).

The British under General Prevost capture Savannah from the Americans (December 29).

Paul Jones harasses British vessels.

1779. The Americans under General Wayne recapture Stony Point from the British (July 15).

George Rogers Clark finally captures Vincennes, and thus wins the Northwest for the United States.

Paul Jones captures the British frigates *Serapis* and *Scarborough* off coast of Flamborough (September 23).

1780. The Americans under Lincoln surrender at Charleston to the British under Clinton (May 12).

The first French army arrives at Newport, Rhode Island (July 10).

The Americans under Gates are defeated by the British under Cornwallis at Camden (August 16).

Arnold betrays his country and escapes to the British army (September).

Major André is executed as a spy (October 2).

The western pioneers under Ferguson defeat the British at King's Mountain (October 7).

Greene is put in command of the Southern army (December 2).

Patriot bands harass the British army in the South.

1781. The Americans under Morgan defeat the British under Tarleton at Cowpens (January 17).

Greene retreats before Cornwallis (January and February).

The Articles of Confederation are ratified by Maryland, the thirteenth and last State to take this action, and the Continental Congress becomes the Congress of the Confederation (March 1).

The Americans under Greene are defeated by the

British at Guilford Court House. The British, badly crippled, retreat to Wilmington (March 15).

The French and American armies watch New York (June and July).

A French fleet arrives in Chesapeake Bay (August 30). Greene practically recovers the Carolinas and Georgia from British rule (September).

The combined American and French land and water forces begin the siege of Yorktown (September 28).

The British under Cornwallis surrender at Yorktown, Virginia (October 19).

1783. Peace is signed with England by the United States, France, and Spain, at Paris (September 3).

1786-1789

1786. Shays's Rebellion occurs in Massachusetts.

1787. The Constitution of the United States is adopted by the Convention (September 17).

Congress passes the "Ordinance of 1787."

1789. The Congress of the Confederation decides that the Constitution should go into effect March 4, 1789.

George Washington is chosen first President of the United States. John Adams is chosen Vice-president.

PERIOD OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE STATES TO THE CIVIL WAR

CHAPTER XVI

CONDITIONS OF THE NEW NATION

233. Area—Extent—Population. The United States in 1783 included an area of about eight hundred thousand square miles, being bounded on the north by the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence; on the east, by the Atlantic; and on the south and west, by Spanish territory. These boundaries were in dispute at points east and west of the Great Lakes.

The first census, taken in 1790, showed a population of nearly four millions, about one-fifth of which were negroes, mostly slaves, and one-fiftieth Indians. Only five per cent of the people lived west of the Alleghanies. Virginia was the most populous state; Pennsylvania ranked next; then followed in order North Carolina, Massachusetts, New York, Maryland, South Carolina, and Connecticut.

234. The West. Vermont was admitted as the fourteenth state in 1791, and Kentucky as the fifteenth, in 1792. The glowing accounts of Boone and other western pioneers attracted many people to the beautiful and fertile region west of the mountains.

There were three main routes of travel to the western settlements:

- (1) the Ohio River was reached at Pittsburgh by a route through Pennsylvania or by way of the Potomac and Monongahela Rivers;
- (2) the Virginia valley settlers followed the Greenbrier River to the Great Kanawha, a branch of the Ohio;

(3) the greatest number of the frontier settlers moved by way of the Cumberland Gap or Wilderness Road.

Great numbers of pack-horses and emigrant wagons were following these routes across the mountains. Pittsburgh especially felt the impetus of the western movement, for, from this point, the pioneers with their families and belongings could

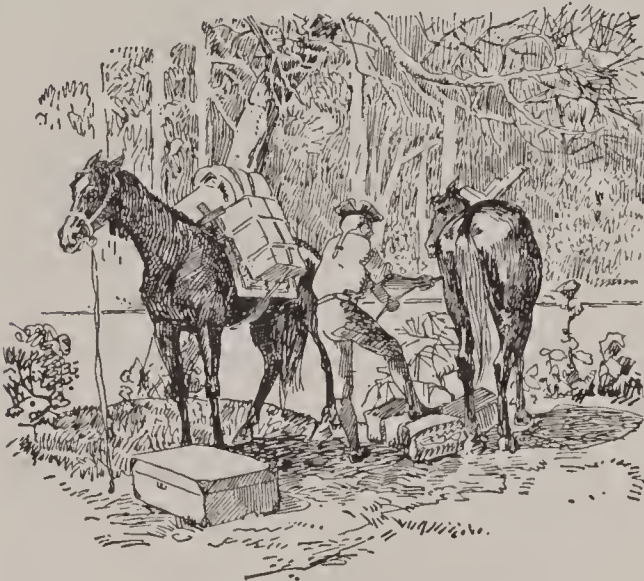
easily float down the Ohio on flatboats and build homes in what is now the state of Ohio.

235. Towns. There were no large cities in America at the close of the Revolution. Only five had a population exceeding ten thousand—Philadelphia, New York, Boston, Charleston, and Baltimore. The streets of most of the cities were narrow and poorly paved, if paved at all.

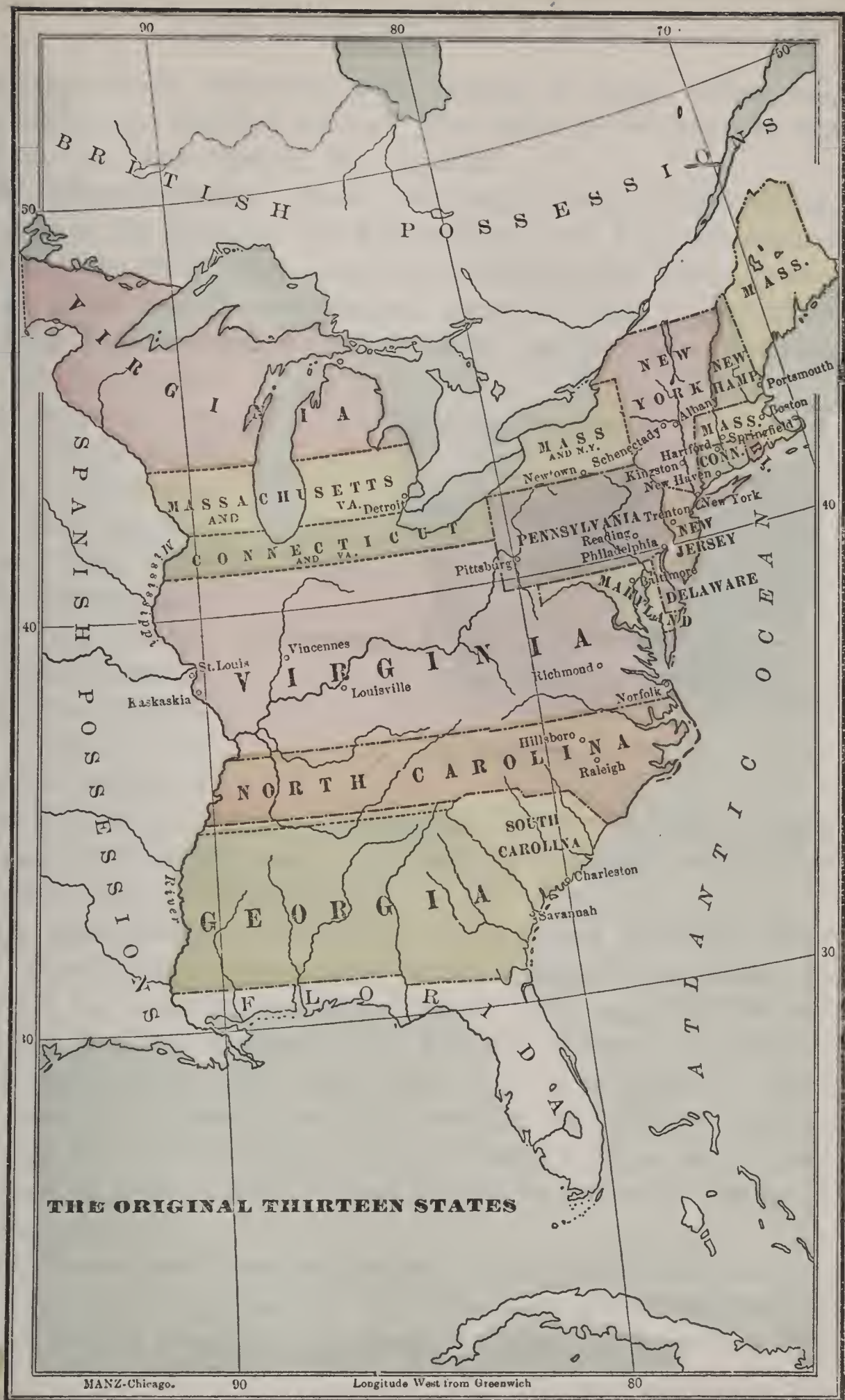
There were no sewers, and

sanitation received but little attention. All kinds of diseases prevailed; worst of all was the terrible yellow fever. Philadelphia, the finest city in the United States, however, had lighted and paved streets and a drainage system.

236. Commerce. Owing to the fact that the old Confederation could not protect the commerce of the country, trade at this time was not very flourishing. But in spite of unfavorable conditions, American navigators were familiar with all seas. They sailed to the West Indies, Europe, Asia, and even to China and the northwest coast of America. New England ship-owners loaded their vessels with beef, pork, fish, peltry, timber, and pitch at the various colonial ports, with grain and flour from the Middle States, with hogsheads of tobacco from Maryland and Virginia, or with rice and indigo from Carolina and Georgia. With these supplies they then sailed away



PACK-HORSES



THE ORIGINAL THIRTEEN STATES

to foreign lands, returning with cargoes of sugar, coffee, tea, salt, nails, and distilled spirits. The value of the imports was slightly less than that of the exports.

237. Manufacturing. Manufacturing, except shipbuilding, was yet in its infancy. In shipbuilding New England ranked first and the South last. In New England and Pennsylvania the excellent facilities encouraged manufacturing, woolen cloth being the most important product of this period. Some weaving and dyeing mills were active in the New England States, but spinning was done in the homes. There were a great many paper mills, iron works, and glass factories in Philadelphia. Saw and grist mills lined the banks of



AN EMIGRANT WAGON

the swift-flowing streams. Blacksmiths' forges were erected along the roadside; leather was tanned and dressed, and barrels were coopered and packed with fish.

238. Agriculture. Agriculture was the chief industry, probably nine-tenths of the people being engaged in farming. It received less attention in New England than any other section on account of the nature of the soil and climate. In agricultural regions the farmer made his own wooden plow, which was drawn by horses or oxen; he manufactured his own wagon; dropped his seed by hand; cut his grain with a scythe and threshed it with a flail, or had his cattle or horses tramp it out for him.

239. Travel and Communication. The means of travel and communication had changed but little since pre-Revolutionary times. Sailing vessels on the ocean, flatboats on the rivers, and

the saddle-horse and stage coach for inland travel were still the chief means of transportation. More regular routes, however, had been established between the larger cities. Western farmers sent their produce down the Ohio and the Mississippi to New Orleans, where the free use of the mouth of the latter river had been provided for in a treaty with Spain.

240. Social Life. A great change in American customs and ways of living had come about. In the large towns the homes of the wealthy, though lacking in modern comforts, were spacious and beautifully furnished. Among the aristocratic classes there was much display in dress: the men wore boots, knee-breeches,



PLOWING IN EARLY DAYS

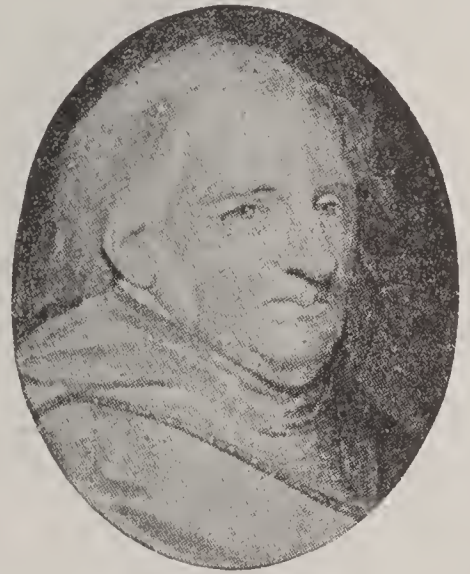
overcoats, cloaks of costly material, and lace ruffles about the wrists. The women were attired in dresses of gaily colored silks and velvets, over which were worn dainty white aprons, while quaint white cambric caps adorned their heads. The people in the villages and on the farms still lived in humble and rudely furnished log houses. They industriously raised their food on their own farms, or in their gardens, and wore simple, homespun clothes. The spinning wheel was found in every home. It is said that Mrs. Washington kept sixteen running. Fireplaces were still used in the majority of homes, but the stove invented by Franklin was fast coming into use. The houses

were lighted by means of tallow candles, for a whale-oil lamp was a rare luxury.

241. Education. The cause of education had suffered greatly during the war. Schools were neglected, for most of the students had become soldiers. But the speeches and writings of the great political leaders during the long years of controversy with England and the agitation over the Constitution had stirred the people's thoughts and feelings, and had called for hard thinking on many questions. One of the hopeful signs for the future of parochial and government schools was the article in the Constitution which granted freedom of conscience, as also the provision made by the old Congress in the Ordinance of 1787, that education in the Northwest should be encouraged. Noah Webster, a young schoolmaster, had just arranged a speller, and was at work upon a dictionary (1783).

242. Religion. We have seen that the Revolution swept away many of the old religious prejudices. The majority of the people were in favor of religious freedom, and the Constitution took away from Congress the power to hinder freedom of worship. In some of the original states, however, Catholicity for many years was obliged to struggle against opposition.

After the "Peace of Paris," in 1789, Pope Pius VI erected the Episcopal See of Baltimore and appointed as first Bishop of the United States the learned and patriotic John Carroll, who had for some years administered the affairs of the American Church with the rank of Prefect Apostolic. His diocese embraced the whole United States; his flock, in the charge of some forty zealous pioneer priests, numbered about fifty thousand. It is interesting for Catholics to note the fact that, simultaneously



BISHOP CARROLL
From the Portrait by Gilbert
Stuart in Georgetown University

with the election of President Washington as the civil executive of the young nation, Divine Providence provided the infant American church with a spiritual executive in the person of the illustrious Right Reverend John Carroll. Franklin, Washington, and other leading builders of the Republic, highly esteemed Bishop Carroll for his saintly life and noble patriotism. The Holy Father, through Franklin, inquired of Congress in what manner the arrangement of a bishop for the United States could be made without interfering with the laws of the nation. In answer, Congress assured him that the United States had no jurisdiction over matters purely spiritual.

No sooner had the Abnaki Indians of Maine, the descendants of Father Rasle's loyal flock, heard that the Holy Father had appointed a Bishop over the American Church, than they sent a delegation to ask the reverend prelate for a priest. Bishop Carroll received them kindly, embraced Father Rasle's crucifix, which they carried with them, and promised to give them the desired "black gown." These Abnaki Indians, true to the faith to this day, have never been without a missionary since that time.

As the West had been first explored by the French, Catholicity had early gained a foothold there; and the French posts in the Mississippi valley were regularly attended by chaplains. After the Jesuits withdrew, however, the Rev. Father Gibault, vicar-general of that region under the Bishop of Quebec, was for many years the only priest in the territory of what is now Indiana and Illinois. The cross had also been planted on the Pacific Coast. Shortly before the Declaration of Independence, the Spanish Franciscans, under Father Serra, founded the mission which afterwards became the city of San Francisco.

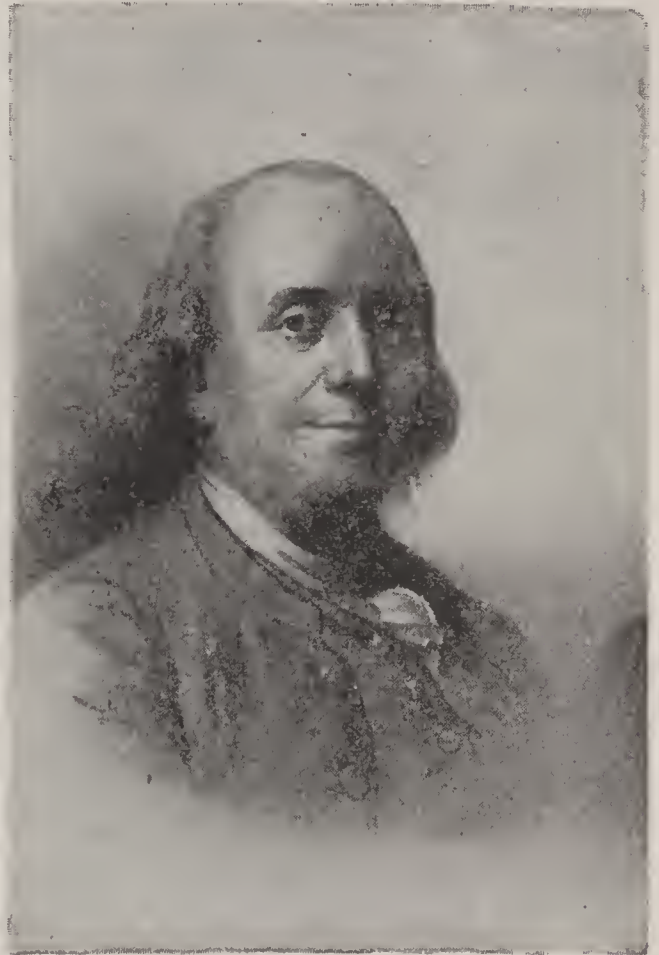
243. Literature, Art, and Science. American literature was still in its infancy, even though America had produced some noted writers. She had eminent scientists in Franklin and Benjamin Thompson; distinguished painters in West, Copley, and Stuart; and great statesmen and political writers in Dick-

inson, Jefferson, Hamilton, and Madison. Of these, Franklin was perhaps the most widely known and admired. Newspapers had increased in numbers, but the people still had to depend largely upon letters for their news. The first Catholic work published in the United States was written by Bishop John Carroll.

244. Anti-Slavery Spirit.

At the close of the Revolution, slavery existed in nearly all the States. But many people now began to think that if it was wrong for Englishmen to tax their colonies, it could hardly be right for Americans to buy and sell Africans as slaves. Emancipation acts which were eventually passed in many states finally abolished slavery north of Mason and Dixon's line.

In the South, however, where slave labor was more profitable on the great plantations than on the small farms of the North, slavery had taken a firmer foothold. But even here many people thought slavery wrong and voted for the Ordinance of 1787, which forbade it in the Northwest Territory.



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN

Questions

1. What were the boundaries of the new nation? What races of people and in what proportions made up the new nation? Where did most of them live?
2. Trace the three main westward routes of travel. How did people travel?
3. What products did the new nation sell to foreign nations? What things were being manufactured?

4. Tell about the social life of the time.
5. Give three important happenings that affected education.
6. Tell about America's first bishop and his diocese. What did Congress say about the central government and spiritual matters? What did the Indians do when they heard about the new bishop? Where had the Catholics gone in the West?
7. Name the new nation's scientists, painters, and statesmen. Which was the most famous of all?

Theme Topics

1. Travel by the Old Stage Coach.
2. Studying by Candle Light.

CHAPTER XVII

GEORGE WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION

THE FIRST PRESIDENT—1789-1797

245. The Inauguration of Washington. The inauguration of Washington, who had been elected, as we have seen, the first President of the United States, had been planned for the first Wednesday in March, 1789, but because of the slow means of travel and communication, it was not held until April 30. Washington, after a triumphal journey to the capital, took the oath of office on the balcony of Federal Hall, New York City, in the presence of an immense throng of people. When the ceremony was over, Chancellor Livingston, who had administered the oath of office, called out: "Long live Washington—President of the United States!" The cry was caught up and prolonged by the enthusiastic people, while the artillery boomed and the city bells rang forth their joyous peals. Washington then read his inaugural address in the Senate chamber in the presence of the assembled Congress.

246. Our First Congress—Important Measures. When our first Congress opened its session, there were important measures to be considered. These were:

- (a) the enactment of revenue taxes, or a tariff, to pay the public debt;
- (b) the creation of administrative, or executive departments;
- (c) the establishment of a judicial system consisting of a Supreme Court, Circuit Courts, and District Courts;
- (d) the fixing of the salaries of the President and Congressmen;
- (e) the making of amendments to the Constitution (Bill of Rights); and
- (f) the location of the nation's capital.



WASHINGTON AND HIS MOTHER

247. Six Administrative Departments. Washington, with the consent of the Senate, appointed six able men to preside over the five administrative departments created by Congress, and over the Supreme Court:

(1) Thomas Jefferson was appointed Secretary of State; (2) Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury; (3) Henry Knox, Secretary of War; (4) Edmund Randolph, Attorney-General; (5) John Jay, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court; and (6) Samuel Osgood, Postmaster-General.

248. The President's Cabinet. The first Congress passed an act creating several executive departments and authorizing the President to select their heads. The heads of the first four executive departments—Jefferson, Hamilton, Knox, and Randolph—were often consulted by Washington and thus by custom our Cabinet was created.

The government was now organized. Congress, the law-making department, enacted the laws; the President, at the head of the executive department, enforced the laws; and the Chief Justice, with his associates, constituting the judicial department, administered justice, interpreting the laws when their meaning was disputed.

249. Hamilton's Financial Plan. The national debt—foreign and domestic—amounted to about fifty-five million dollars. American credit was dead; but Hamilton worked out a plan for a general financial system, which tended to revive credit and to strengthen the authority of the Union. He made the following proposals:

- (a) that the government levy taxes for the two-fold purpose of paying its running expenses and debts, and of protecting American industries;
- (b) that a direct tax be imposed on alcoholic liquors;
- (c) that the government pay in full both its foreign and domestic debts;
- (d) that it assume and pay the debts of the separate states;
- (e) that it establish a great national bank.

Hamilton, although only thirty-two years old, had acquired a reputation as a lawyer, and as a writer on problems of government. He soon came to be known as the best financier in America. Daniel Webster afterwards said of him: "He touched the dead corpse of the public credit and it sprang to its feet."

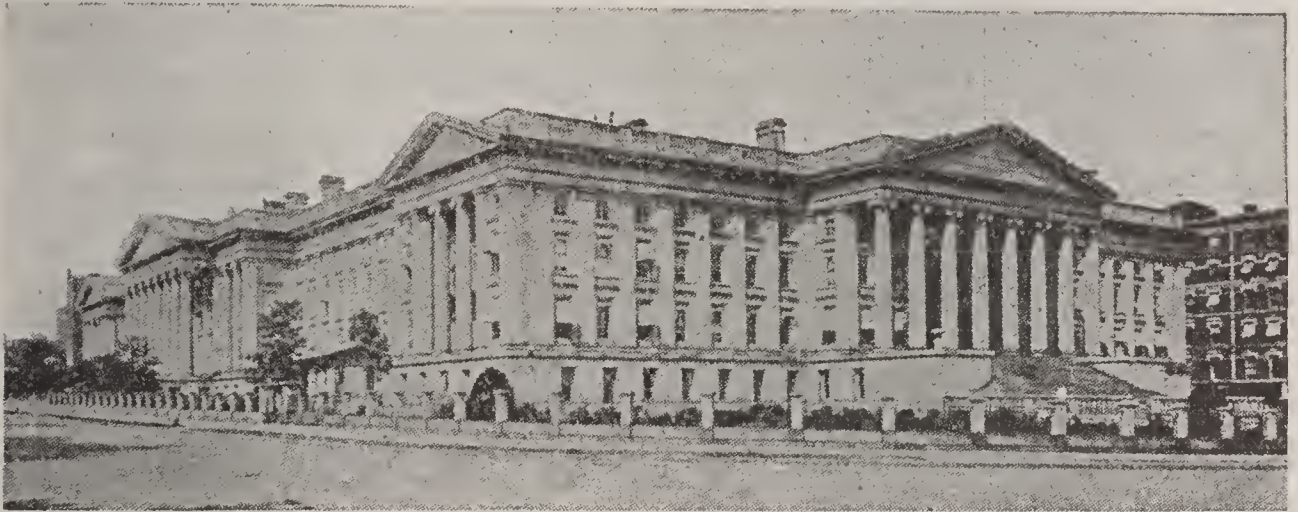


FEDERAL HALL

250. Revenue Acts. In order to raise money to meet the expenses of the government, Hamilton suggested that imported goods be taxed. As the tax was to be included in the selling price of the articles, the buyers would not realize that they were paying it. This revenue tariff also served to protect American manufacturers. Since the latter could not make goods as cheaply as the old established concerns of Europe, they were afraid that they would not be able to compete with these European firms. This tax made the selling price of the manu-

factured goods from Europe as high, and in some instances higher, than the same kind of goods manufactured in America. The citizens of the country, therefore, usually bought the American article. The Tonnage Act, intended for the encouragement and protection of American shipping, provided that goods imported in foreign vessels be taxed more heavily than those imported in American ships.

In a short time these revenue acts yielded an annual income of about three and a half million dollars, which enabled the



THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT TODAY

government to pay its running expenses and the interest on its debts.

Congress, upon Hamilton's advice, imposed a small tax on alcoholic liquors. The people of the Alleghany region and western Pennsylvania, who carried their grain to the market in the shape of whiskey, could not see why they should be taxed more than the people east of the mountains, who carried their grain to the market simply as grain. They were inclined to regard the tax in the same light as the stamp duties before the Revolution. An insurrection, known as the Whiskey Rebellion, followed. As the governor of Pennsylvania was unable to suppress it, Washington sent fifteen thousand troops (1794) who ended the rebellion. This event proved that the United States had the power to enforce its laws.

After a heated debate on Hamilton's plan of paying foreign debts, Congress accepted it, together with a plan for paying the domestic debt. Hamilton's proposal that the national government assume the unpaid debts of the states met with strong opposition from Jefferson and his followers. It happened, however, that while this question was being discussed, a dispute arose over the location of the permanent capital of the nation. Many of the southern members of Congress wanted it on the Potomac, while a number of northern members wanted it on the Delaware. Hamilton agreed that he would favor the location of the capital on the Potomac River in case Jefferson would favor his plan for assuming the state debts. A compromise was made on this basis. Hamilton secured enough northern votes to locate the capital on the Potomac, and Jefferson secured a sufficient number of southern votes to carry Hamilton's plan of assuming the state debts.

Hamilton next proposed the establishment of a national bank in which the government should hold shares. He declared that such a bank would be a safe place for depositing the government's funds, and would help the government in borrowing, collecting, and paying money. This measure was strongly opposed, but was finally passed. In 1791 the first Bank of the United States was chartered for a period of twenty years. Congress established a mint in Philadelphia. With the opening of the mint our decimal system began—"ten cents make a dime, ten dimes, a dollar."

251. Beginning of Political Parties. The national bank caused the men of the country to divide into two political parties. Many persons were alarmed at Hamilton's measures, fearing that the national government would take away powers belonging to the states. They believed that Congress should adhere strictly to the words of the Constitution and should do only the things which the Constitution expressly gave it power to do. These persons formed the party of strict construction,

or the Republican, later called the Democratic-Republican, party. Their leader was Jefferson.

On the other hand, many men in the country did not believe in holding Congress strictly to the words of the Constitution. They believed in a strong national government, and they thought that Congress had the right to pass any law for the wel-



CINCINNATI IN 1819

fare of the nation which was not forbidden by the Constitution. These men formed the party of loose construction, or the Federalist party. Their leader was Hamilton.

252. Reëlection of Washington and Adams. Washington wished to retire to Mount Vernon at the end of his first term, but both Jefferson and Hamilton, voicing the sentiments of the two parties which they represented, urged him to stand for a second election. Yielding his own wishes to those of the people,

he was for a second time elected by the unanimous vote of the electoral college. John Adams, the Federalist candidate, was reëlected Vice-president.

253. Westward Movement. Shortly after the passage of the Ordinance of 1787, Congress sold five million acres of north-western lands to individuals and companies. While the country was discussing Hamilton's financial measures, thousands of people from the eastern states were emigrating to the Northwest Territory, of which General St. Clair became the first governor. Before long the cities of Marietta (1788) and Cincinnati (1790) were founded on the Ohio, and the territory of Ohio was admitted (1803) into the Union as the seventeenth state.

The Indians bitterly resented the invasion of their hunting grounds, and, encouraged by the British, who still held Detroit, they resolved to drive out or kill the settlers. "Mad Anthony" Wayne, the hero of Stony Point, laid waste their country and forced them to give up most of the Ohio country to the whites.

254. War in France—The United States Remains Neutral. During most of Washington's administration a terrible revolution was going on in France. The people overthrew the monarchy (1792), beheaded the king, Louis XVI, and the queen, Marie Antoinette, abolished all titles, and set up a republic. France declared war against England and sent "Citizen" Genêt as minister to America to get help. A difficult problem now faced Washington and his cabinet, for they knew that to aid France meant war with England. Had not France been the first and warmest friend of American freedom? Was not England America's old enemy? These were questions of great importance, made all the more so by the fact that this was the first administration, and succeeding ones would very likely follow its example. Washington's decision, approved by his Cabinet, to maintain neutrality (April 22, 1793) was the beginning of our policy of not interfering in the affairs of European nations.

255. Genêt's Indiscretion. This attitude of the United States was anything but what France had expected. Genêt landed at Charleston, South Carolina, and thinking the United States in sympathy with his country, began to enlist men, to fit out ships for the French service, and to do other unlawful acts. Even after being requested by Secretary Jefferson to stop such proceedings, he continued to fit out vessels as privateers to prey on English commerce, and to commit other violations of neutrality. He went so far as to try to stir up the people against Washington and the government. The people, however, resented such an insult, and upheld Washington when he demanded the recall of Genêt.

The Democratic-Republicans sympathized with the cause of France. They were inclined to aid France by war or by indirect help—such as we had received from that country at the beginning of the Revolutionary War. The Federalists, on the other hand, were strongly opposed to giving aid to France. They leaned toward England because they wished English trade, and because they feared the spread of anarchical principles in America.

256. Trouble with England. Our relations with England were no better than those with France. In the first place, England claimed the right to seize provisions carried to French ports in our ships, declaring they were contraband of war. Next, she impressed our seamen—that is, she stopped American ships to search them for seamen of British birth, in order to force them into her navy. Often naturalized Americans, and even sailors born in the United States, were seized. Last, England still refused to give up the western posts, and encouraged the Indians to make war upon our settlers in the West.

257. The Embargo—Jay's Treaty. Public feeling rose in this country until a temporary embargo (1794) forbade vessels to depart from American ports. The clamor for war became loud. Washington tried to avert it by appointing John Jay, then Chief Justice of the United States, as special envoy to England, where he was to make a last effort to adjust matters. After four

months of negotiations, a treaty was drawn up which was ratified by Congress. Washington signed the bill, thus averting war.

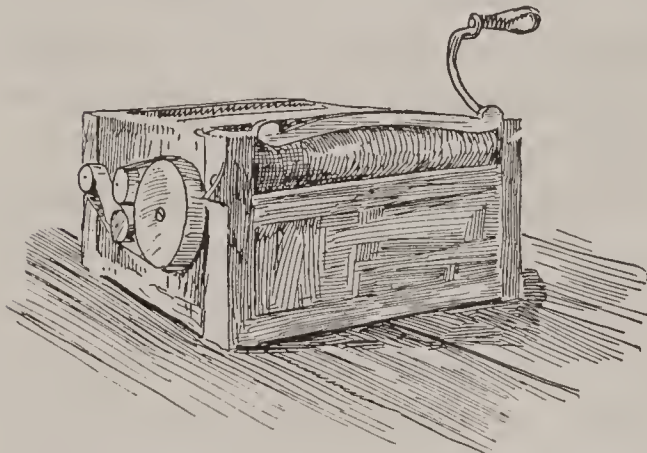
258. Treaties with Spain and Algiers. Thomas Pinckney negotiated our first treaty with Spain (1795) by which that power permitted for ten years the use of New Orleans as a "place of deposit" for the free storage of goods to be transhipped, and fixed the thirty-first degree of latitude as the boundary of Florida.

A treaty was also made with the pirate government of Algiers (1795) by which the American seamen who were held as captives were ransomed, and American shipping on the ocean and on the Mediterranean was to be left unmolested.

259. The Spinning Mill—The Cotton Gin. Samuel Slater had, as a boy, spent seven years in the cotton mills of England.

On coming to the United States he constructed from memory the necessary machinery and set up (1790) a cotton spinning mill at Pawtucket, Rhode Island.

Cotton thus far had been grown in small quantities only, owing to the difficulty of separating the seed from the fiber, which had to be done by hand. In 1793 Eli Whitney,



ELI WHITNEY'S COTTON GIN

a Connecticut schoolmaster, then residing in Georgia, invented a contrivance by which the cotton fiber was drawn by saw teeth through openings too small to admit the passage of the seed.

By this invention, called the cotton gin, the working capacity of one slave in cleaning cotton was multiplied about three hundred times.

The invention of the cotton gin

(a) stimulated the production of cotton and greatly increased the wealth of the country;

- (b) increased our exports enormously;
- (c) encouraged the building of a great number of cotton mills in New England;
- (d) fixed slavery on the nation, thus leading indirectly to the Civil War.

Francis Lowell of Boston, after an investigation of the machinery and methods of the cotton manufacturers in England,



GEORGETOWN UNIVERSITY

built a small factory near Boston, in which he began both the spinning and weaving of cotton (1813). From this time on factories multiplied and the industry grew very rapidly.

260. Catholic Education—New Laborers in the Vineyard. Bishop Carroll, who was greatly interested in Catholic education, founded Georgetown College (1787), with the Jesuits in charge. He also organized a theological seminary in Baltimore and placed it in care of Sulpicians from Paris. Carmelite nuns (1790) established themselves at Port Tobacco, Maryland, and later at Baltimore, where they opened a school.

To escape the horrors of the revolution raging in France, twenty-three French priests sought refuge in the United States (1791-1799). Bishop Carroll gladly welcomed them, and they were soon zealously engaged in mission work in Kentucky and elsewhere. Six of these priests later became bishops. The Catholic Church in the United States is deeply indebted to the zeal of these exiled French priests for their unwearied efforts in the interests of religion. The first priest ordained in the United States was Rev. Stephen Badin, another French exile. He received holy orders in Baltimore and (1793) became a missionary in the West. The second priest ordained in the United States (1795) was the illustrious Russian Prince, Demetrius Gallitzin, fittingly termed the "Apostle of the Alleghanies." He sacrificed a distinguished position and a large fortune to become a missionary in western Pennsylvania. Father Gallitzin founded the Catholic colony at Loretto, distributed lands to the settlers, and spent thousands of dollars in charitable enterprises.

261. Other Events. Early in the session of the first Congress, twelve amendments to the Constitution were adopted. Ten of these, called the Bill of Rights, were ratified and added to the Constitution.

Washington again, as during the war, did not desire any pay for his services. Congress decided, however, that the salary of the President should be twenty-five thousand dollars a year. Six dollars a day were allowed to a Congressman.

Captain Gray of Boston sailed (1790) around Cape Horn, thence up the Pacific along the Oregon coast. He discovered the mouth of a great river, which he named the Columbia in honor of his ship. He then crossed the Pacific to China and from there he proceeded around the Cape of Good Hope and across the Atlantic to Boston. The American flag for the first time had been carried around the world.

Three states were admitted into the Union: Vermont entered (1791) as the fourteenth state, without slavery; Kentucky

came in (1792) as the fifteenth state, with slavery; Tennessee was admitted (1796) as the sixteenth state, with slavery.

The first fugitive slave law enacted by Congress (1793) gave the owner of a fugitive slave the right to seize him in whatever part of the United States he might be found. Upon proof that the person was a fugitive slave, he was to be returned to the owner. Anyone hindering his return was to be fined five hundred dollars.

Washington declined to be a candidate for a third term as president. The Federalists chose John Adams, and the Democratic-Republicans chose Thomas Jefferson as candidate for the presidency. Adams was elected by three votes, and Jefferson became Vice-president.

Questions

1. What three departments of government were organized under the Constitution?
2. Why was the president's cabinet organized?
3. How did Alexander Hamilton plan to pay the national debt? What is meant by a protective tariff? Why did Hamilton believe such a tax necessary? Why was there a "Whiskey Rebellion"? What did the quelling of the rebellion prove? Why did Hamilton want a National Bank?
4. What did the first political parties believe in?
5. Why did many Americans sympathize with the French Revolution? Why did Washington demand the recall of Genêt? While England and France were at war, how did American commerce suffer?
6. What three treaties did the government of the United States negotiate?
7. What were the results of the invention of the cotton gin?
8. Describe other events of Washington's administration.

Theme Topics

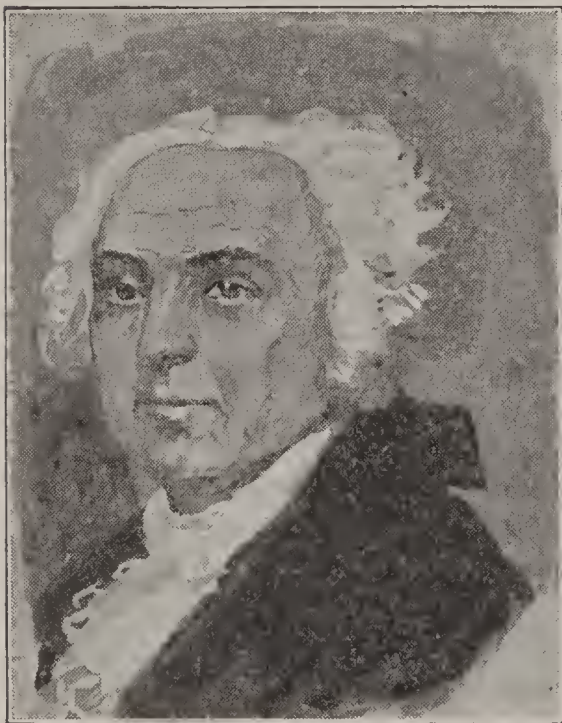
1. Be prepared to talk during the language period about Alexander Hamilton; about Thomas Jefferson.
2. Let two pupils draw up short outlines for a ten-minute debate on the query, Resolved: That Washington Should Have Become a Candidate for a Third Term. Let each pupil present his argument before the class.

CHAPTER XVIII

JOHN ADAMS'S ADMINISTRATION

FEDERALIST—1797-1801

262. New Trouble with France. When John Adams became President (1797), he found that our trouble with France had not been ended by the recall of Genêt. France, who considered the Jay Treaty an insult (because it seemed favorable to England),



JOHN ADAMS

recalled her minister to the United States and ordered our minister, Charles Pinckney, to leave the country. French cruisers began to attack our merchant vessels.

263. The X, Y, Z Affair. Hoping to avoid war, Adams appointed John Marshall and Elbridge Gerry to join Pinckney in a final attempt to settle matters peaceably. When these men reached Paris, they were denied an official interview. Three persons acting as French agents visited them privately, declaring that the

American envoys could be received only after the United States had paid each Director the sum of fifty thousand dollars, and had loaned money, as a tribute, to the French government.

The American envoys refused to accept these terms, and Pinckney was reported to have exclaimed, "Millions for defense; not a cent for tribute." When Adams made his report to Con-

gress he called the three agents Mr. X, Mr. Y, and Mr. Z; hence the incident became known as the "X, Y, Z affair." When this incident became public through the newspapers, a cry of indignation against France went up throughout the country. "Millions for defense; not a cent for tribute," "War with France!" resounded on every side. Inspired by the excitement, Joseph Hopkinson composed the patriotic song, "Hail Columbia."

Preparations for war were made, and naval hostilities between the two nations were actually begun. Within a short time the French Directory declared its willingness to receive an envoy from the United States. Adams sent a commission, which made a treaty (1800) with Napoleon, who had attained power in France.

264. Three Acts Aimed at Foreigners. During the trouble with France, the newspapers printed violent attacks upon the President and the government. Many of the journalists at that time were foreigners, and the Federalists, who controlled both Houses of Congress believed that these attacks might tend to weaken the Union. To get rid of these writers and at the same time to punish American-born editors who too freely criticized the administration, Congress passed three laws:

- (a) the Naturalization Act, which increased the time of residence necessary to become a citizen from five to fourteen years;
- (b) the Alien Act, which gave the President power to expel from the United States all aliens whom he thought dangerous to its peace;
- (c) the Sedition Act, which provided for the punishment by fine and imprisonment of any person who should bring the government into disrepute.

The Alien and Sedition Acts were never strictly enforced, but they had two important results. First, they helped to drive the Federalists from power, and, second, they called forth the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions.

265. The Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions. The Virginia resolution pronounced the Acts a violation of the Constitution; the Kentucky measures declared that a state might rightfully nullify any act of Congress which was a violation of the Constitution. Nullifying the law means declaring it void and not to be enforced; hence nullification is a very dangerous doctrine, which, if exercised by the individual state instead of by the Supreme Court of the United States, would soon break up the Union. The idea that states might resist the national govern-



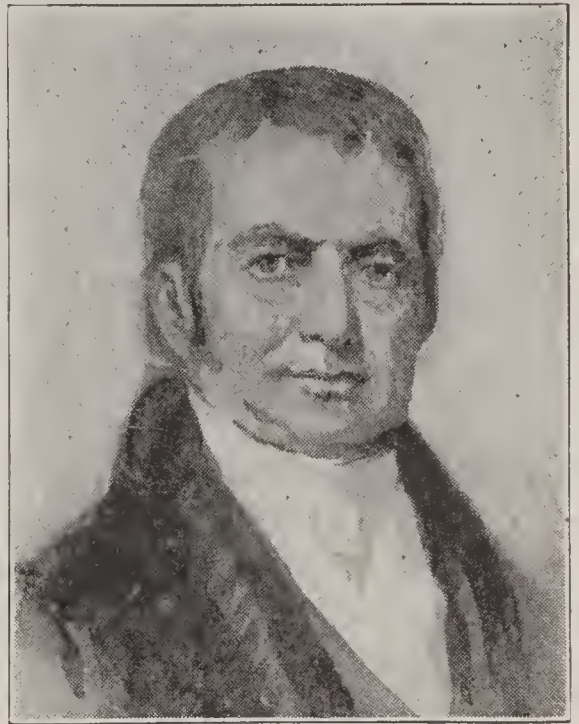
WASHINGTON'S TOMB AT MOUNT VERNON

ment if they saw fit was destined to make trouble many years later—as we shall see when we take up our study of the Civil War.

266. The Death of Washington. Washington died at his home at Mount Vernon, in the last month of the last year of the eighteenth century (December 14, 1799). The people mourned him as a father, who highly deserved the love and gratitude of the whole nation for all coming ages. Washing-

ton's remains were entombed at Mount Vernon. The tomb is a shrine which men of every nation, irrespective of party, creed, or color, visit with feelings of veneration. A tradition of the New York Indians says, "Alone of all white men, Washington has been admitted to the Indian heaven, because of his justice to the red men."

267. John Marshall Appointed Chief Justice. Before going out of office (1801) Adams appointed John Marshall, a Virginia Federalist, as Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. Marshall, who for thirty-five years used his powerful influence to make the general government superior to the states in all questions concerning the common interests of the nation, proved himself the greatest of American jurists, and it has been fittingly said of him that "he found the Constitution paper, and made it power."



JOHN MARSHALL

268. Catholic Immigration. The Irish Rebellion of 1798 caused a vast stream of Catholic immigration to the United States. Owing to this fact, the Catholic Church grew rapidly in numbers, so that the Catholic population of New York had, in eleven years, increased from about one hundred to about fourteen thousand. It was regarded as marvelous that six priests should be ordained in New York City in one day. "The event," writes the venerable Bishop Carroll, "was a happy day for the diocese." In view of this increase, the Sovereign Pontiff raised the See of Baltimore (1808) to the rank of an Archbishopric with four auxiliary bishoprics—New York, Philadelphia, Boston, and Bardstown, Kentucky.

Questions

1. How did the French show their anger against the Jay treaty? Explain the "X, Y, Z affair." What effect did this incident have upon the American people?
2. What were the Virginia and Kentucky resolutions? Explain why these resolutions were dangerous to the nation.
3. How did John Marshall make our nation stronger?
4. What effect did immigration have upon the Catholic Church in America?

Theme Topics

1. The writing of "Hail Columbia."
2. Imagine that you and your classmates have made a trip to Washington's tomb at Mount Vernon. Write a eulogy of one paragraph that might be delivered by a member of the class after a wreath had been placed before the tomb.

CHAPTER XIX

THOMAS JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION

DEMOCRATIC-REPUBLICAN—1801-1809

269. Jefferson and Burr Are Elected. In the third presidential election, Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr each received an equal number of votes, and the election of the president was thrown for the first time into the House of Representatives. On the thirty-sixth ballot Jefferson was elected President, and Burr became Vice-president.

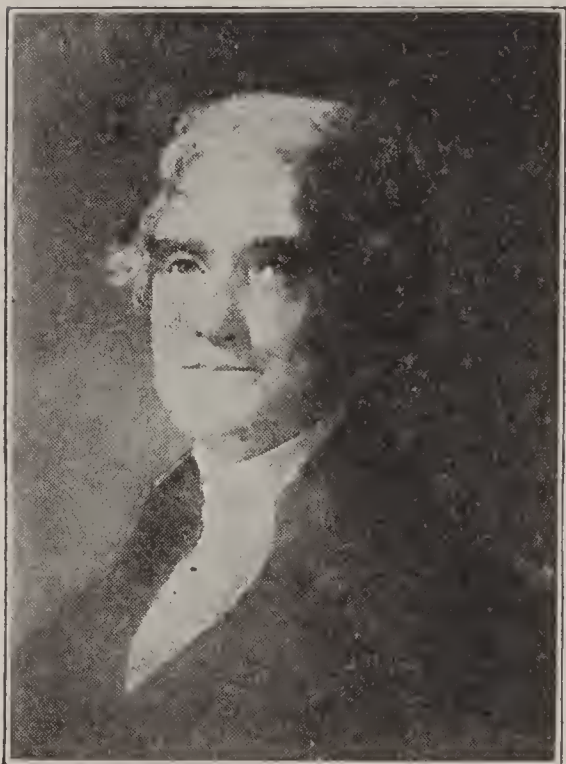
270. Jefferson's Inauguration. Jefferson (1743-1826) was the first President to be inaugurated in the new capitol, which was ridiculed as a "palace in the woods." Dressed in his ordinary clothes, and accompanied by a few political friends, he quietly took the oath of office without any impressive ceremony. In his inaugural address, he declared, "We are all Republicans! We are all Federalists!" He mentioned the principles of the government as being:

- (a) equal rights to all men;
- (b) peace, commerce, and honest friendship with all nations;
- (c) no entangling alliance with any foreign power;
- (d) the supremacy of the civil over the military power;
- (e) economy in public expense; and
- (f) the honest payment of public debts.

Being a poor public speaker, Jefferson began the custom of sending his "annual message" to be read before Congress, instead of delivering it in a formal address, as Washington and Adams had done. Though dignified in manner and scholarly in tastes, he had a strong dislike for ceremony and show. Of aristocratic Virginian descent, he had in his latter days become very democratic, having great faith in the com-

mon people. He thought the President should be simple in dress and manners, and mingle freely with the people. He wore a red waistcoat, yarn stockings, and worn-down slippers, and was entirely informal in his reception of visitors.

271. The Louisiana Purchase. In 1800 Spain secretly ceded Louisiana to France. When the people of the United States learned of this they were greatly alarmed, for it meant that



THOMAS JEFFERSON

France, a strong nation, instead of Spain, a weak nation, would control the Mississippi River. This alarm was increased when the officials at New Orleans closed the Mississippi to the citizens of the United States, denying to those living west of the Alleghanies the privilege of taking their products to New Orleans by way of the river.

In order to obtain control of the river, Jefferson resolved to purchase the Island of New Orleans. He sent James Monroe as a special envoy to France to assist our minister, Robert Liv-

ingston, in making the purchase. Just at this time war between France and England had been renewed, and Napoleon was greatly in need of money. He offered to sell the entire Louisiana Territory to the United States for fifteen million dollars. Although they had not been empowered by the President to spend such a large sum of money, the envoys made the purchase (1803). By this purchase the United States enlarged its territory so that it controlled all the land extending from the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains and from Canada to Texas. The area of our country was doubled.

272. Jefferson Is Reëlected. When the fact and terms of the Louisiana Purchase became known, the people were astonished at the magnitude of the acquisition. The treaty was so clearly for the good of the nation that it was generally approved, and at the election of 1804, Jefferson was reëlected by an enormous majority. George Clinton of New York was chosen Vice-president.



THE CAPITOL TODAY

273. Duel Between Hamilton and Burr—Burr's Conspiracy. Aaron Burr, while a candidate for the governorship of New York, was strongly opposed by Hamilton. Stung by the attacks of his opponent, Burr challenged Hamilton to a duel. The two men met at a secluded spot on the Jersey shore, and Hamilton fell, mortally wounded.

Under the pretense of making an expedition against the Spaniards of Mexico, Burr made a tour of the Mississippi Valley, built boats, and collected an army. His real purpose, it is believed, was to set up an independent nation in Texas and

Mexico, with himself at the head. He was at length betrayed, arrested, and tried for treason by Chief Justice Marshall, but, because of insufficient evidence, was released. The career which his brilliant talents might have made honorable and useful was wrecked, and Burr lived lonely and despised for the rest of his days.

274. First Explorations of the Northwest. The Louisiana Purchase opened a great field for western emigration, and



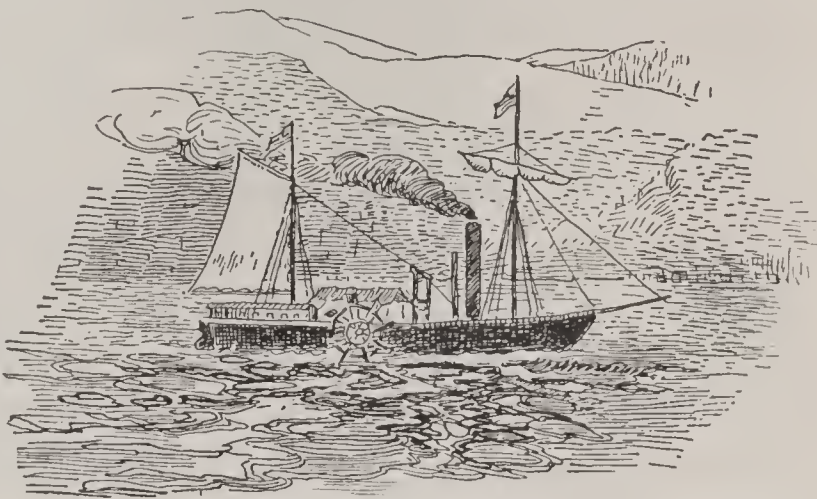
ROUTE OF THE LEWIS AND CLARK EXPEDITION

Jefferson, realizing the importance of some knowledge of the new territory, sent an expedition, under the leadership of Meriwether Lewis and William Clark, brother of George Rogers Clark, to explore the country as far as the western ocean. Leaving St. Louis in the spring of 1804, the party pushed its boats up the Missouri, crossed over the Rocky Mountains, and floated down the Columbia River to the Pacific, which it reached in November, 1805, after a perilous journey of four thousand miles. Returning the next year, the party gave the people

of the East a glowing account of the "vast, illimitable West" with its wonderful resources. The Lewis-Clark expedition gave the United States another claim to the region called Oregon, which had been discovered by Gray in 1790. It strengthened our rights to the Oregon country against the claims of England and Russia; and, together with Pike's explorations, it gave the nation an idea of the great value of the Louisiana Purchase.

Lieutenant Pike, in command of the United States troops, set out from St. Louis and explored the head-waters of the Mississippi, Arkansas, and Red Rivers. He discovered the mountain peak which now bears his name. Five years after the Lewis-Clark exploration, a New York fur trader named Astor established a trading post at the mouth of the Columbia River, and called it Astoria. A line of trading posts was eventually established from the upper Missouri to Astoria.

275. Fulton's Steamboat. Many people feared that the Republic, with its vast new territory, was too large to be held together; but a means of bringing its parts into closer communication was even then at hand. Robert Fulton, a Pennsylvanian



FULTON'S STEAMBOAT

of Irish descent, invented the first successful steamboat, the *Clermont*. The boat made its trial trip up the Hudson from New York to Albany in thirty-two hours (August 11, 1807), and from this time steam navigation made rapid progress. Only twelve years later (1819) the *Savannah*, the first ocean steamship, started from Savannah, Georgia, and crossed the Atlantic to Liverpool in twenty-five days—a great feat, the credit of which belongs to a southern state.

276. War with the Barbary States. During the previous presidencies, the United States had to buy the good will of the Barbary States (countries on the northern coast of Africa), paying them high ransoms and tributes. Finally Tripoli, one of these states, became so insolent that Jefferson sent a naval expedition to teach the piratical powers to respect us. The city of Tripoli, capital of the country, was bombarded, and finally the pasha, or governor, was so thoroughly humiliated that he was glad to sue for peace (1805).

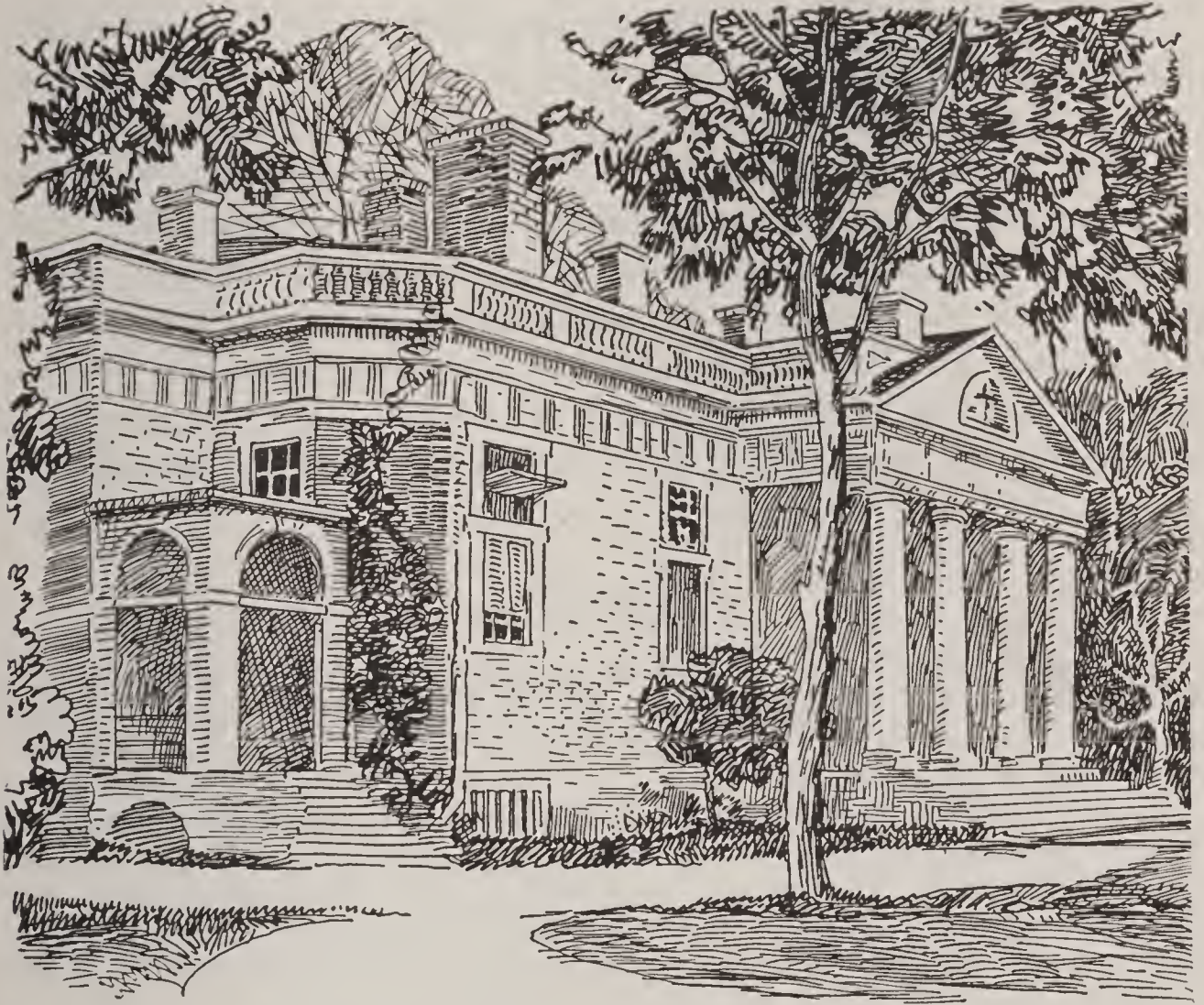
This war had three important results: (1) the Barbary States eventually ceased their attacks on our commerce; (2) our merchant marine became a training school in which seamen were prepared for the War of 1812; and (3) Jefferson was forced to consent to the enlargement of our navy.

277. France and Great Britain Plunder American Ships. The Barbary Powers were not the only enemies of American commerce. France and Great Britain, at war with one another, were trying to injure each other's trade, regardless of the injury inflicted upon American commerce. The British government, in 1806 and 1807, published her "Orders in Council" declaring all French ports in a state of blockade, and forbidding neutral vessels to enter a French port. Napoleon replied with his "Decrees," which forbade neutral trade with England. Following these declarations, American vessels bound to or from blockaded ports were subject to capture anywhere on the high seas by the cruisers of the belligerents.

278. England Claims the Right of Search and Impressment. England still claimed the right to search our vessels for seamen of English birth and to impress them into the British navy. British war vessels even anchored outside American ports capturing hundreds of American vessels and impressing thousands of our seamen. The height of insult was reached when the British frigate *Leopard* overhauled the American frigate *Chesapeake* off Hampton Roads, Virginia, and ordered her to submit to search. Upon refusal, the *Leopard* opened fire on the *Ches-*

apeake, which, unprepared for battle, surrendered. Four men, three of whom were American citizens, were seized and impressed into British service. The whole nation was aroused at this outrage.

279. The Embargo Act. To prevent the loss of our ships and seamen, and to punish both France and England by depriv-



MONTICELLO—JEFFERSON'S HOME

ing them of American goods, Jefferson secured the passage of the Embargo Act. This act forbade American ships to leave the United States for any foreign port. American industries suffered severely under this law, and much dissatisfaction was

expressed throughout the country. Fourteen months later (1809) the act was repealed, and Congress passed the Non-Intercourse Act, which prohibited all commerce with Great Britain, France, and their colonies.

280. Other Events. The unpopular Naturalization Act was repealed in 1802. In the same year, the number of years' residence required for citizenship was reduced from fourteen to five.

Ohio was admitted (1803) into the Union as the seventeenth state, without slavery. The second census of the United States was taken in 1800; it showed a population of over five million.

The Twelfth Amendment, which provided that the electors cast separate ballots for President and Vice-president, was proposed by Congress and ratified by the states (1804).

Congress put a stop to the importation of slaves after January, 1808. The law was endorsed by Jefferson, who, like Washington and most leading men of the South, held slaves, but who sincerely hoped that the country would find some peaceful means of freeing the negroes.

Questions

1. How did Jefferson show that his sympathies were with the common people and not with the aristocrats? Which of his principles as emphasized in Section 270 do we hear frequently discussed today? Which do you think to be very important? Why?

2. Why was the United States aroused when it was learned that Spain had ceded Louisiana to France? Why was Napoleon willing to sell Louisiana to the United States? How did Jefferson finally get control of the territory for the United States? Show on the map the extent of this territory. Name some of the resources then undeveloped that have made this purchase a great bargain. Why did Jefferson send Lewis and Clark to explore the Louisiana Territory? Trace on the map the journey they made. What were the results of this journey?

3. When and by whom was the first successful steamboat built?

4. What were the results of the war with the Barbary States? Be sure you can locate these states on the map.

5. How did the war between England and France interfere with American commerce? What is your opinion of the Chesapeake affair? What is meant by an Embargo Act? What was the effect of Jefferson's Embargo Act?

6. What was the Non-Intercourse Act? Describe the other events in Jefferson's administration.

Theme Topics

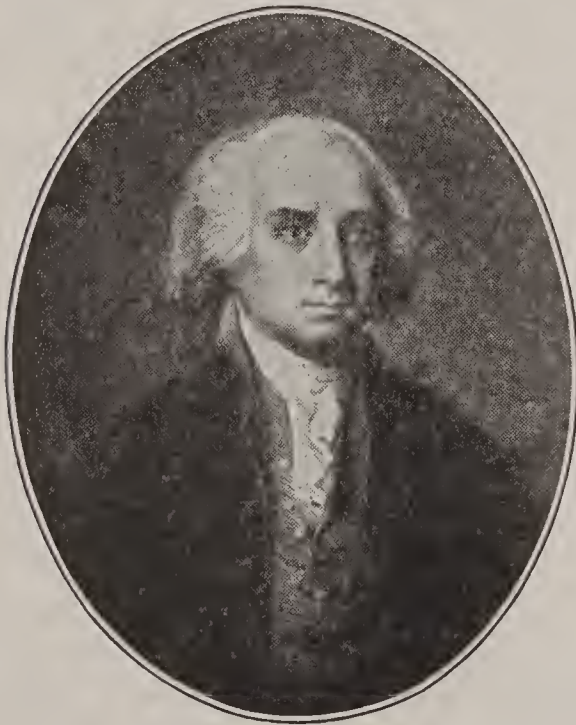
1. Relate orally during the language period the story of Robert Fulton and his work.
2. Lewis and Clark Expedition.
3. War with the Barbary States.

CHAPTER XX

JAMES MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION

DEMOCRATIC-REPUBLICAN—1809-1817

281. Madison Elected. James Madison, the fourth president of the United States, was a native of Virginia. He had acquired a reputation as the foremost framer of the Constitution, as leader of his party in Congress, and as Secretary of State. He was universally esteemed for his statesmanship and learning. Inasmuch as he was a friend and strong sup-



JAMES MADISON

porter of Jefferson, his administration may be looked upon as a continuation of that of his predecessor. He hated war, and, like the three preceding presidents, thought it better for the general welfare of the nation to avoid it. This, however, was fast becoming impossible.

282. Foreign Difficulties Continue. When Madison began his administration, foreign affairs were in a deplorable condition. Great Britain and France continued to capture

our ships, and England still impressed our seamen.

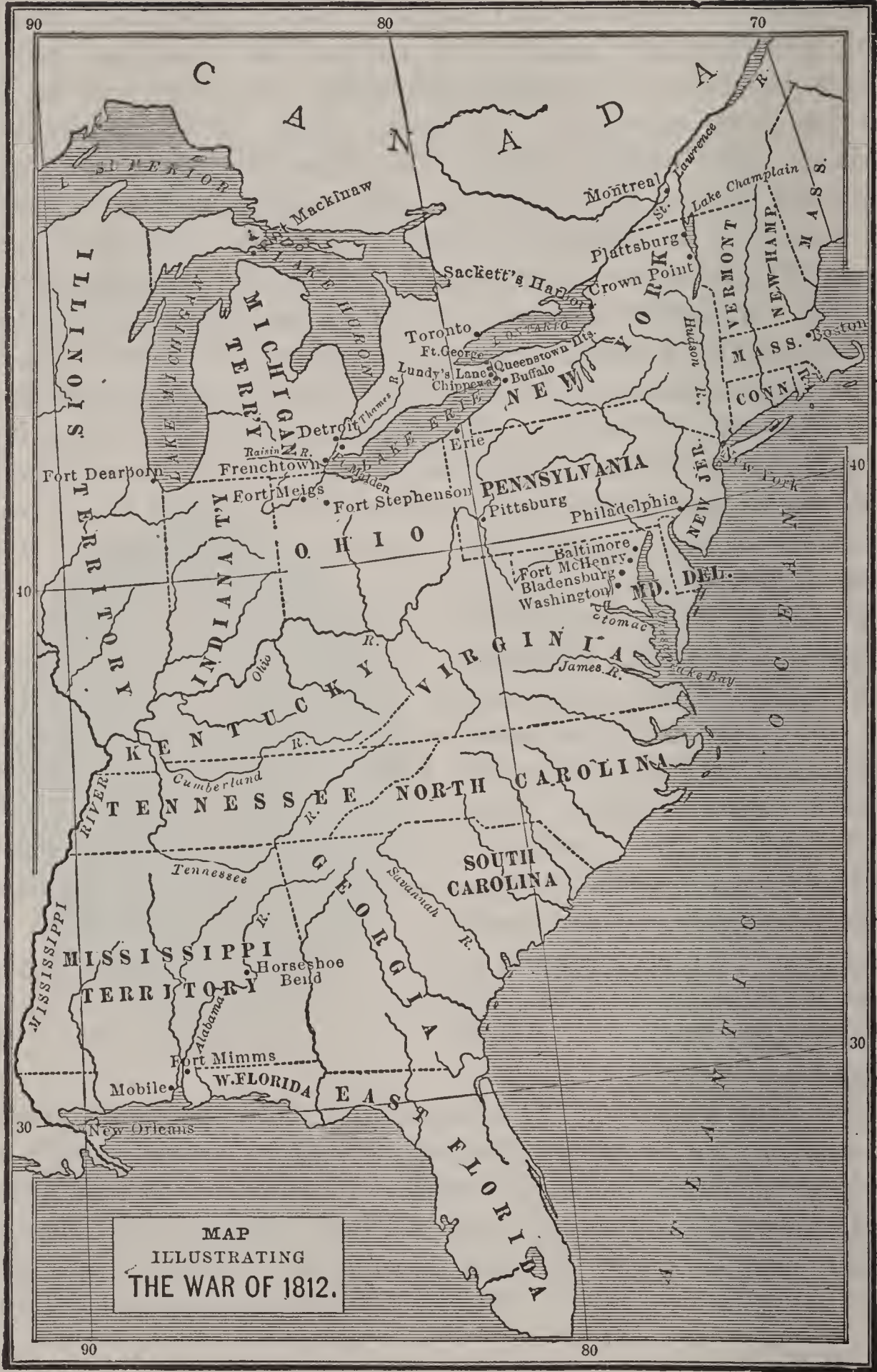
Great Britain claimed, "Once an Englishman, always an Englishman," whereas the United States held that any foreigner could become an American by naturalization. There were, of course, causes for annoyance on both sides. It not

infrequently happened that English seamen procured fraudulent naturalization papers and entered the American navy, where the better treatment and higher pay made our naval service more attractive. Congress (May, 1810) passed the "Macon Bill," which repealed the Non-Intercourse Act, but provided that in case Great Britain should repeal its "Orders in Council" or Napoleon should repeal his "Decrees" (see page 212), non-intercourse should be resumed with the other nation. Napoleon, in a letter to the United States, announced a repeal of his Decrees. At once numerous American vessels sailed for European ports, but they were promptly seized and despoiled by the French. The British refused to rescind the Orders in Council and continued to impress American seamen.

Madison, provoked by all these outrages, ordered the frigate *President* to sea to protect our commerce. The *President* was soon fired upon by the British sloop of war *Little Belt*, and in the ensuing battle the English vessel was badly crippled.

283. More Indian Troubles. To add to the difficulties confronting the nation, the Indians of the western frontiers, led by the great chiefs, Tecumseh and "The Prophet," who, it is supposed, were incited by the English, threatened the safety of the western settlers. General William Harrison, governor of Indian Territory, collected troops and repulsed the savages at their town of Tippecanoe, on the Wabash River. The losses on both sides were very heavy, Harrison losing one-fourth of his men. Tecumseh, absent at the time of the battle of Tippecanoe—urging the southern Indians to join the confederation—returned only after the defeat of these northern tribes by Harrison.

284. War Declared. The responsibility of maintaining peace or entering upon war with England was now thrown upon Congress, which met in extra session (November 4, 1811). The Federalists, who were strong in New England and closely allied with England through commercial relations, opposed war with that country. But the Republicans controlled both



houses of Congress, and, led by John C. Calhoun of South Carolina and Henry Clay of Kentucky, believed that war with England would result in the conquest of Canada with the subsequent driving of England from the American continent. After months of debate, war against England was declared by Congress on June 18, 1812.

The United States, wholly unprepared for war, was forced to enter the conflict without the support of all its sections. The people of the agricultural sections of the West and South wanted war, but the peace Republicans of the middle states and the Federalists of New England were strongly opposed to a breach with England. This opposition of New England led to great difficulty in securing money to carry on the war, because most of the money then in the United States was in the hands of the New England business men, who refused to lend it to the government.

285. Madison is Reëlected. The war Republicans, who supported the President, were strong enough to carry the next presidential election, and Madison was reëlected. Vice-president George Clinton had died during his term of office, and Elbridge Gerry, of Massachusetts, was now chosen to succeed him.

286. American War Plan for 1812—Failure. The Americans planned to invade Canada before England could send a large army to America. General William Hull started from Detroit into Canada, but was driven back and forced to surrender with his entire army. The people of the United States, indignant at Hull's surrender, accused him of cowardice. He was tried by court-martial and sentenced to be shot, but President Madison, considering his age and his services during the Revolution, pardoned him. It is now believed that humane motives led him to sacrifice his reputation in order to save his army from destruction.

287. Naval Victories of 1812. The first of our numerous and glorious naval victories was won by David Porter, captain of

the *Essex*. His ship was mistaken for a merchantman and fired upon by the British sloop *Alert*. Porter, replying with a terrible broadside, captured (August 13, 1812) the *Alert* without the loss of a man, after an engagement of only eight minutes.

Six days later the American frigate *Constitution*, commanded by Captain Isaac Hull, met the British frigate *Guerriere* in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. After a contest of forty minutes the British ship was reduced to a total wreck, while the *Constitution* sustained but slight injury. This victory was hailed with great rejoicing, for the *Guerriere* had been particularly



FORT DETROIT

active in the searching of American vessels. The *Constitution* became the pet ship of the American navy. Because of this victory and others which followed, it was later named Old Ironsides. (Read Holmes's poem, "Old Ironsides.")

In October Captain Jacob Jones, commander of the *Wasp*, captured the British sloop *Frolic* off the coast of North Carolina, but scarcely was the battle over when a British man-of-war captured both the *Wasp* and her prize.

288. Naval Successes and Reverses of 1813. The year opened with a renewal of naval successes for the Americans. The sloop *Hornet*, with Captain Lawrence in command, captured the

British brig *Peacock*. The *Essex*, with Porter in command, cruised the Atlantic and Pacific and captured many British merchant vessels.

The naval victories of 1813 were practically offset by the reverses. Captain Lawrence, having been made commander of the frigate *Chesapeake*, was defeated near Boston harbor by the British frigate *Shannon*, commanded by Captain Broke. The last order of Captain Lawrence, when mortally wounded, "Don't give up the ship!" became the rallying cry of the American navy. This was our first important naval defeat, but it was not the only one. The *Essex* was captured in a neutral port; the *Argus*, after destroying twenty-seven vessels in the English Channel, was taken by the *Pelican*; our frigate *President* was captured while endeavoring to escape the blockade of New York harbor.

289. Perry's Victory. On the lake frontier, a young naval officer, Captain Perry, built a fleet of nine war vessels on Lake Erie. The British also equipped a fleet under Captain Barclay. The two forces met (September, 1813) at Put-in Bay. The outcome of this desperate fight was expressed in Perry's brief message to General Harrison: "We have met the enemy and they are ours, two ships, two brigs, one schooner, and one sloop." Perry's victory was the turning point of the war, for it gave us control of the Great Lakes and the West, thus enabling Harrison to enter Canada. Perry, a native of Rhode Island, had never been in action before. He named his flagship *Lawrence*, and a blue banner at its masthead bore the dying words of the brave Captain Lawrence, "Don't give up the ship!"

290. American Privateering. England had blockaded the American ports one after another, and most of our fleet was shut up in the harbors of Boston, New London, and New York. Before the end of the year the blockade of all the Atlantic ports was effected. Hence, the defense of the newly acquired American reputation at sea was left to privateers—small vessels—quick to strike and quick to escape. In this way the Ameri-

on board a British ship, whither he had gone to secure the release of some prisoners. All night long he watched the bombardment of the fort. Eagerly watching the flag still flying over Fort McHenry, he wrote in pencil on the back of an old letter the national hymn, "The Star Spangled Banner."

The American forces on Lake Champlain were in charge of Commodore McDonough, whose flagship was the *Saratoga*.



BATTLE OF LAKE CHAMPLAIN

When the British, commanded by Prevost, entered Plattsburg (September), McDonough, having earnestly implored the Divine assistance, began a sharp two hours' naval contest, which resulted in a victory for the Americans. Prevost retreated to Canada, and the war in that section was ended.

To Edward Pakenham, one of England's ablest lieutenants, was entrusted the capture of New Orleans. He was supported by an army of ten thousand veterans and a fleet of fifty vessels.

The expedition made a landing below the city. Andrew Jackson, who was in command of the Americans at New Orleans, had gathered about six thousand men from Kentucky, Tennessee, and the neighboring region, five thousand of whom were Catholics. With these troops he took his stand behind breastworks. Pouring a deadly fire into the ranks of the British, our troops forced the enemy to withdraw after the loss of nearly two thousand men, among whom was Pakenham. Never before in English history had a British army been so badly defeated. The American loss was exceedingly light—probably some seventy men all told.

294. The Hartford Convention. The war was very unpopular in New England and the extreme Federalists openly advocated secession. Finally delegates from nearly all the New England states met in secret session at Hartford, the real proceedings of which were not made known. It is supposed that the purpose was to arrange for secession from the Union. As the delegates to this convention were all Federalists and their meeting was a secret one, the whole affair bore the stamp of national disloyalty, which, with the party's opposition to the war, gave the death blow to the Federalist party.

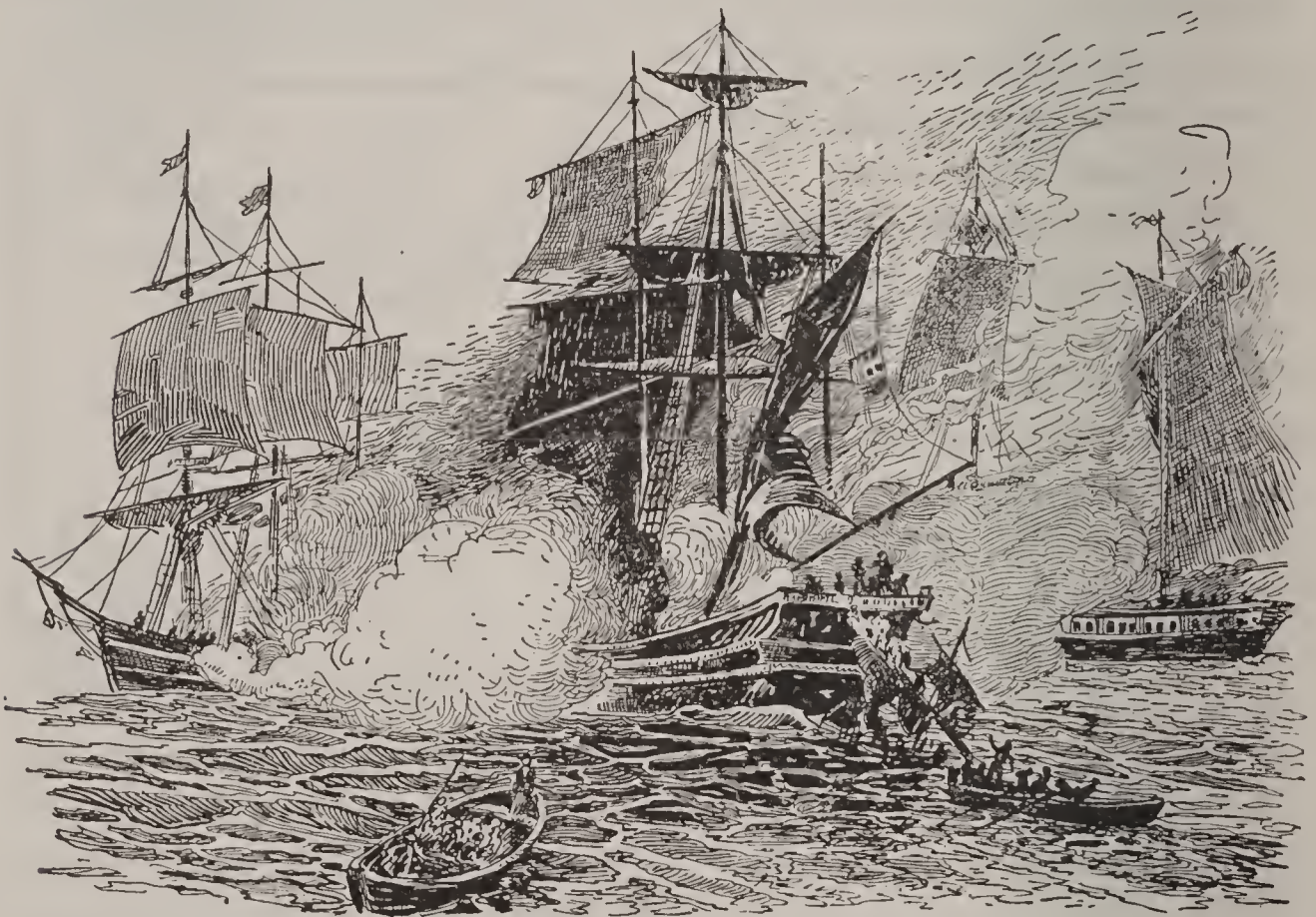
295. Treaty of Peace—Results of War. Before the battle of New Orleans was fought, peace had been signed at Ghent, Belgium, on Christmas Eve, 1814. Because of the slow means of communication the treaty, signed by the peace commissioners, had not reached the United States in time to prevent the battle. Though the causes of war were chiefly the impressment of our seamen and the British interference with our commerce, nothing concerning these two points was mentioned in the treaty. There was, however, an understanding on both sides that American commerce was not to be interfered with, and Great Britain never again impressed our seamen.

The war had the following good results:

(a) European nations were convinced that we were able to take care of ourselves, and our ships thereafter navigated the ocean in peace;

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The war had the following good results:

(a) European nations were convinced that we were able to take care of ourselves, and our ships thereafter navigated the ocean in peace;

- (b) the United States was thenceforward recognized by the world as a first-class power;
- (c) a new impulse was given to our heretofore backward manufacturing industry. The embargoes and the maritime dangers which had retarded American commerce had caused many capitalists to turn their attention to manufacturing, and thereafter we were not obliged to depend upon England for cotton and woolen goods;
- (d) love for and confidence in the Union were increased.

296. The Tariff of 1816. The first protective tariff was passed in 1816. It imposed a duty on imported cotton and woolen goods, salt, and iron. This tariff had its supporters, led by John C. Calhoun, who was still a strong advocate of nationalization; it also had its opponents, led by Daniel Webster, who represented the New England shipping interests, and by John Randolph, the champion of the agricultural South.

We see here a beginning of the cause for a division in the Democratic-Republican party, which was gradually changing its views. It saw that a strict construction of the Constitution could not always be followed, as shown in the Louisiana Purchase and the rechartering of the national bank. The Democratic-Republicans began more and more to favor nationalization and to adopt many of the principles of the old Federalist party.

297. The Barbary States Again. During the war of 1812, the Barbary States again captured many of our vessels and made slaves of the crews. After peace (1815) had been declared with England, Commodore Stephen Decatur captured two of the pirates' ships near Gibraltar. He then forced the Dey of Algiers to release our sailors and to pay for damage done to our commerce. Decatur next proceeded to Tripoli and Tunis, forcing both of these powers to come to terms. The Barbary States have never since molested our shipping.

298. The United States Bank Rechartered. Jefferson's party had bitterly opposed Hamilton's bank, hence it failed to be rechartered when its first twenty years' charter had expired.

(1811). At Madison's suggestion, Congress reëstablished a United States bank, again chartering it for twenty years and giving it all the powers of Hamilton's bank.

299. New States. Two new states were added to the Union during Madison's administration. Louisiana, the eighteenth state, was admitted with slavery (1812). Indiana, the nineteenth state of the Union, was admitted (1816) as a free state.

Questions

1. Make a list of the events leading to the war of 1812. Why were the New England merchants opposed to the war?
2. Make a list of and describe the naval activities of the war. Describe the activities on land.
3. Why did the New England states meet at Hartford? Compare this action with the Virginia and Kentucky resolutions.
4. What were the results of the war?
5. What sections of the country supported the tariff of 1816? Why? What did Madison do for the United States Bank?
6. What did the Barbary States do during this administration? What were the results?

Theme Topics

1. Give orally during the language period the story of "The Star Spangled Banner."
2. Memorize "The Star Spangled Banner."
3. Tell the story of Oliver Perry.

CHAPTER XXI

JAMES MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION

DEMOCRATIC-REPUBLICAN—1817-1825

300. The Era of Good Feeling. James Monroe, the fifth President of the country, who was elected in 1816, may be looked upon as a representative of the people, rather than of the Republican party. The Federalist party disappeared after his election and his second election was unopposed. For this reason the period has been called the "era of good feeling."

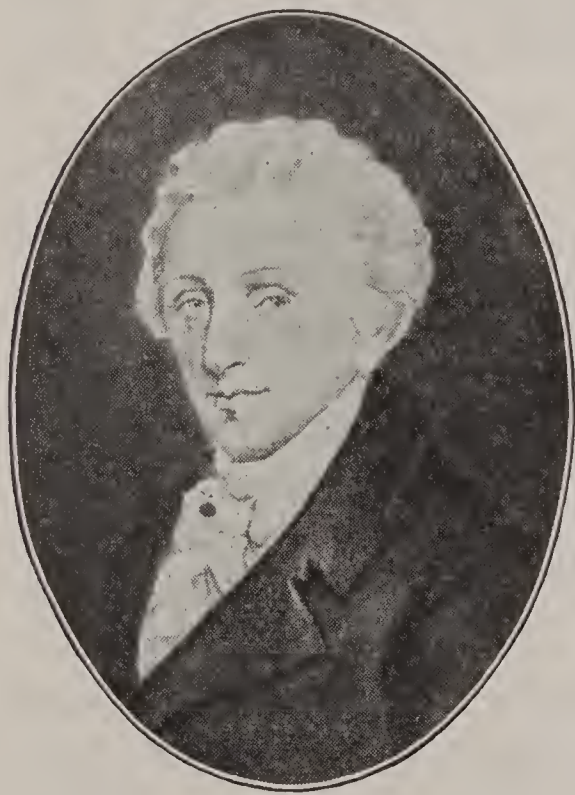
Monroe took the oath of office and gave his inaugural address at Washington near the ruins of the capitol. Daniel B. Tompkins became Vice-president.

Monroe (1758-1831) was the last of the Revolutionary heroes to be President. He had been a soldier in the Revolution, a United States Senator, twice an envoy to France, minister to London, governor of Virginia, and finally Secretary of State during the preceding administration.

301. War with the Seminoles.

In Florida, which still belonged to Spain, there were a large num-

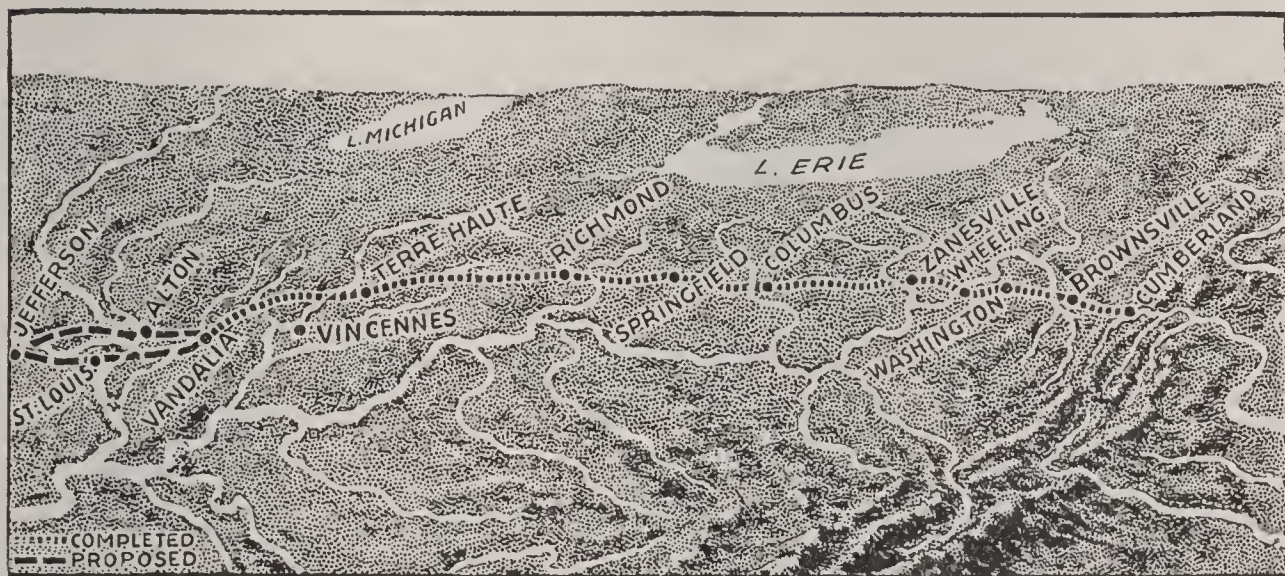
ber of runaway slaves, pirates, and robbers. These, joining the Seminole Indians, kept up a constant warfare against the whites



JAMES MONROE

of Georgia and Alabama. The government sent Andrew Jackson (1817) to put a stop to these outrages. He entered Florida, drove the Seminoles from place to place, captured the Spanish forts, St. Marks and Pensacola, and hanged two British traders who had incited the savages to hostilities. Spain protested against Jackson's course of action, but trouble was averted by the United States' purchase of Florida (1819) for five million dollars.

302. The Cumberland Highway. The power of the Indians of both the Northwest and the Southwest was now broken,



THE CUMBERLAND NATIONAL ROAD

and the vast fertile West was open to immigration. Thousands of people, especially from New England, began to move westward, but their progress was retarded by the lack of roadways. Steamboats and ferryboats were used on the rivers, but goods had to be transported over wide stretches of country through which flowed no navigable rivers. The westward-moving emigrants needed a roadway to connect the East and the West. The western frontiersmen were anxious to exchange products, such as potash, lumber, flour, skins, and grain, for the hardware, clothing, household goods, and farming implements of the Atlantic states. To satisfy the pressing demands of the

times, a great national highway, called the Cumberland Road, was built by the United States government. By 1820 it extended from Cumberland, on the Potomac (Maryland) to Wheeling on the Ohio (Ohio), at which point connection could be made with steamboats running to Cincinnati or even to New Orleans. Later the road was continued as far as Illinois; but the building of railroads made its farther extension unnecessary.



CHICAGO IN 1820

The marvelous development of the West is without a parallel in history. It was given additional impulse by the great tide of foreign immigration which, from 1815 to 1848, increased the population of the United States by more than two millions.

303. New States. Largely as a result of this development of the West, five new states were admitted into the Union—Mississippi, a slave state (1817); Illinois, a free state (1818); Alabama, a slave state (1819); Maine, a free state (1820); and Missouri, a slave state (1821).

304. Slavery—The Missouri Compromise. By the Ordinance of 1787 slavery had been prohibited in the Northwest Territory. When Missouri—which is partly north and partly south of the Ohio River, the southern boundary of the Northwest Territory,—applied for admission into the Union as a slave state, the northern people opposed its admission. They demanded that there should be no more slave states. The Southerners insisted that each state had the right to decide for itself whether it should be free or slave, and that Missouri, therefore, should be admitted as a slave state. The real issue between the North and the South, however, was the question of representation in the Senate. At this time there were eleven free states and eleven slave states. This meant equal representation in the Senate. The admission of Missouri would give a majority of votes to either the North or the South, and hence each was determined to gain control. For two years Congress debated and quarreled over the question. Finally, partly through the influence of Henry Clay, Congress passed an act (1820) which settled the difficulty for a time. This act, known as the Missouri Compromise, provided (1) that Maine be admitted as a free state, (2) that Missouri be admitted as a slave state, and (3) that the remainder of the Louisiana Purchase, north of the parallel of $36^{\circ} 30'$, or the southern boundary of Missouri, be forever free soil.

305. The Monroe Doctrine. The Spanish-American colonies in Central and South America, and Mexico, encouraged by the example of the United States, rebelled against Spain, declared their independence, and set up republics of their own. Spain was unable to suppress the rebellions, but thought that the Holy Alliance might aid her. This alliance had been formed in 1815, by the rulers of Russia, Austria, and Prussia for the purpose of preventing the people of any European monarchy from overthrowing their government. At this same time Russia, which then owned Alaska, was planting colonies along the Pacific coast and was threatening our claims to the Oregon country.

John Quincy Adams, Secretary of State, urged President Monroe to protest against interference by European governments in American affairs. President Monroe did so in his celebrated message to Congress, in which he declared:

- (a) that the United States would take no part in European wars;
- (b) that the United States would not interfere with any European colony already established;
- (c) that the United States would regard as an unfriendly act any attempt by a European nation to gain dominion in America;
- (d) that North and South America were no longer open to colonization by European powers.

This statement of our attitude has since become known as the "Monroe Doctrine." Before the war of 1812, Europe would have been amused at such a declaration, but now it was taken seriously, and as a result projects of European intervention were at once abandoned. Great Britain, like the United States, recognized the independence of the Spanish-American republics; and Russia made a treaty (1824), giving up her claim to the Pacific coast as far as Alaska or the latitude $54^{\circ} 40'$.

306. Lafayette Is the Guest of the Nation. In 1824 the Marquis Lafayette, then an old man, revisited the United States as the nation's guest, in response to an invitation of Congress. The people, remembering his disinterested services during the Revolution, welcomed him with enthusiasm. The venerable Frenchman visited every one of the twenty-four states which then composed the Union and beheld with wonder the gigantic strides the country had taken toward wealth and prosperity. He stood with reverent affection at the tomb of Washington, and laid the cornerstone of the Bunker Hill monument on the spot where Warren had fallen fifty years before. He was finally taken home in the national ship, *Brandywine*, which had been so named in honor of Lafayette's first battle in the cause of American freedom.

307. The Tariff Law of 1824. The tariff law of 1816 had not produced satisfactory results. Consequently, another act was passed (1824), increasing the duties on iron, wool, hemp, and woolen goods.

The South, being an agricultural section and having no factories, protested that the high tariff diminished foreign trade, injured the market for their cotton in Europe, and compelled them to pay higher prices for the goods they were obliged to buy.

The West favored the law, arguing that the encouragement of manufacturing in the East would give it markets near at hand for its surplus products, and that the revenues resulting from the tariff would enable the government to construct new means of transportation across the Alleghanies.

The North supported the tariff, because it prevented the sale of foreign goods at a lower price than those produced at home. As a result, the votes of the western, middle, and eastern states overruled those of the South, and the bill was passed.

308. Indian Missions. The Catholic Indian missions on the Mississippi had been revived by Bishop Dubourg of New Orleans. The Jesuits opened a school for Indian boys at Florissant, Missouri (1824), near the junction of the Missouri and Mississippi Rivers, where the Ladies of the Sacred Heart had already established a school for Indian girls. Among the Jesuits at Florissant was Father John De Smet, one of several young Belgians who had come to the United States. He devoted the whole of his life to the Indian missions. His extraordinary career recalled the heroic days of Fathers Jogues and Breboeuf, and merited for him the title "Apostle of the Rocky Mountains," just as the princely Father Gallitzin received the title "Apostle of the Alleghanies."

Questions

1. Why is James Monroe's administration called the "Era of Good Feeling"? What new territory was acquired? How? What national improvements were made to aid the westward movement?

2. Before Louisiana was purchased what was the boundary line between free and slave states? State the important provisions of the Missouri Compromise. Show on the map the territory affected.

3. What was the Monroe Doctrine? Why is it important? With what reference to the World War have you heard it discussed?

4. Who laid the cornerstone of the Bunker Hill monument?

5. What was the purpose of the tariff of 1824? Why did the South oppose it?

6. Describe the work done by Catholics among the Indians.

Theme Topics

1. The Work of Father De Smet.

2. Lafayette's Visit to the United States.

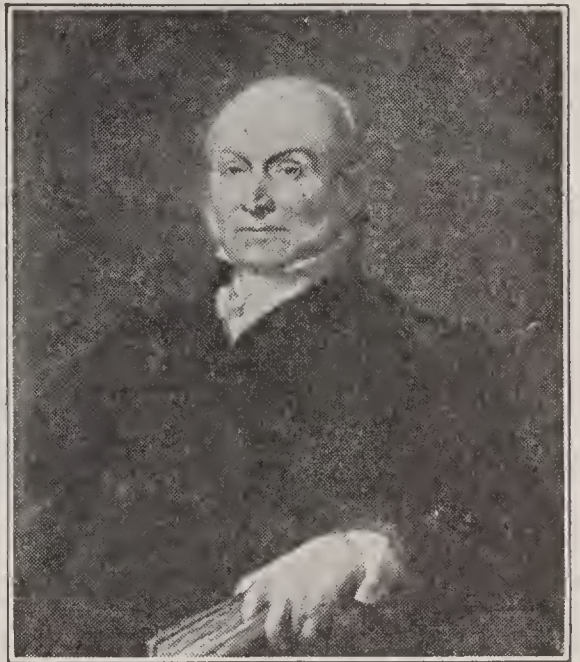
CHAPTER XXII

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS'S ADMINISTRATION

NATIONAL-REPUBLICAN—1825-1829

309. Adams and Calhoun Are Elected. In 1824 the presidential election, for the second time in the history of the United States, went to the House of Representatives. The House chose for the presidency John Quincy Adams of Massachusetts. John C. Calhoun was elected Vice-president.

John Quincy Adams (1767-1848) was the eldest son of the nation's second President, John Adams. He was a statesman of great ability, also, having been schooled from his youth in public affairs. He had been a United States Senator, Minister to Russia and to Great Britain, and Secretary of State under Monroe.



JOHN QUINCY ADAMS

310. Two Great Problems—Political Parties. At this time new problems began to present themselves, and finally led to a difference of political views on the following questions:

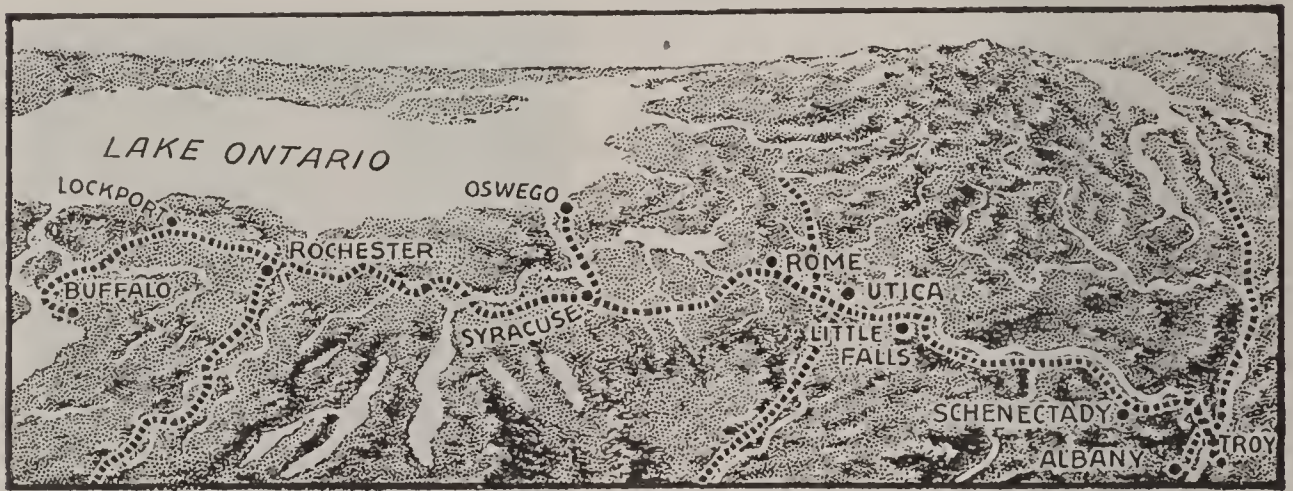
- (a) should internal improvements be made by Congress at national expense?
- (b) is the true policy of the country a tariff for revenue only or a tariff for the protection of home industries?

The advocates of a protective tariff and of internal improvements at national expense gathered around Adams and

Clay as leaders, and called themselves National Republicans, because they sought to increase the power of the national government. They were, in a general way, the descendants of the Federalist party.

Another party, the stronger in number, the old Democratic-Republicans, gathered around Andrew Jackson, under the name of Democrats. They advocated a low tariff and internal improvements at the expense of the respective states. They may be considered as representing Jefferson's party.

311. The Erie Canal. The eastern markets, seeing how the New Orleans steamboats distributed European goods to the

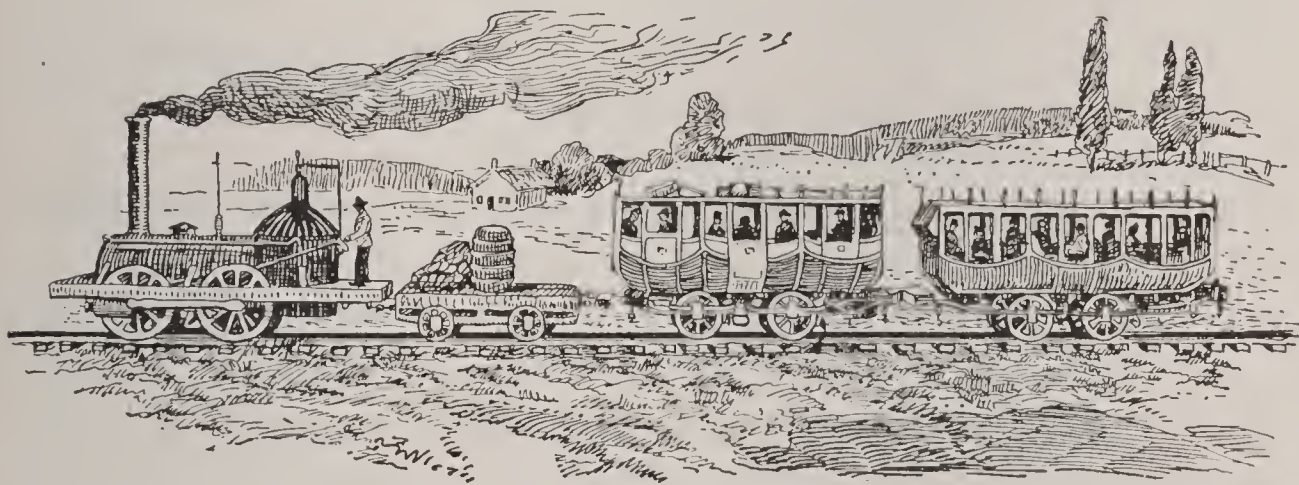


THE ERIE CANAL

western settlers, demanded that Congress build canals between the East and the West. Congress, however, felt that it did not have the right under the Constitution to do this. Meanwhile, the various states were making internal improvements at their own expense. De Witt Clinton, governor of New York, believing that a canal connecting Lake Erie and the Hudson River would draw trade from the Great Lakes and the Mississippi Valley, thus making New York a great commercial center, persuaded the legislature of New York to build the Erie Canal at the expense of the state. This important waterway, begun in 1817, and completed during Adams's administration

(1825), extended from Buffalo on Lake Erie to Albany on the Hudson. It was three hundred sixty-three miles long, forty feet wide, and four feet (later seven) deep. It became the great commercial highway between the East and the West, reduced the transportation charges nearly tenfold, helped to make New York the leading commercial city of America, and gave rise to other numerous flourishing cities along its course.

312. Roads—Canals—Railroads. Pennsylvania, unwilling that New York should have all the Western trade, built a chain of canals and roads between Pittsburgh and Philadelphia. Balti-



AN EARLY RAILROAD

more also tried to improve her connections with the West. Several western states started to build canals, but before many of them were finished the first railroads came into use, forming new and better means of transportation.

The first passenger railroad (1827) extended from Baltimore to Ellicott's Mills, a distance of about thirteen miles. This road afterwards became a part of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. The cars on the track resembled huge wagons on wooden rails, and were drawn by horses. The horses were soon displaced (1831) by steam engines, which ran at the rapid rate of fifteen miles an hour. Charles Carroll of Carroll-

ton, ninety-one years of age (1827), the only surviving signer of the Declaration of Independence, turned the first spadeful of earth which began the construction of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. When the ceremony was over, he exclaimed, "I consider this one of the most important acts of my life, second only to the signing of the Declaration of Independence."

313. The Tariff of Abominations. Many manufacturers, claiming that the tariff of 1824 did not give them sufficient protection, especially on woolen goods, demanded higher tariff rates. A bill which increased the duties on certain raw articles to a ridiculously high figure was therefore prepared. This bill passed both Houses of Congress (1828), and is known as the "Tariff of Abominations." The duty on wool, for example, was raised from about thirty to about seventy per cent, and that on hemp from thirty-five to sixty dollars per ton.

314. Protests Against the Tariff—National Authority Defied. In 1816 John C. Calhoun had favored a protective tariff to encourage domestic industry, while Daniel Webster had opposed it as hostile to the shipping interests of his state. Now, however, Webster advocated protection, and Calhoun opposed it. Five of the southern states protested against the Tariff Bill. Calhoun, as the champion of this movement, suggested that the state of South Carolina hold a convention which would declare the act "null and void within the limits of the state." This was the same doctrine which had been expressed in the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions and in the Hartford Convention—the doctrine of nullification.

Questions

1. How was John Quincy Adams elected? Find the provision in the Constitution which allowed this.

2. What are internal improvements? How did the National Republicans answer the two great political questions? How did the Democrats answer them?

3. What internal improvements were made? Trace their location on the map.

4. Why was the tariff of 1828 known as the Tariff of Abominations? What did Calhoun want South Carolina to do about it? When and where had that idea been expressed before?

Theme Topics

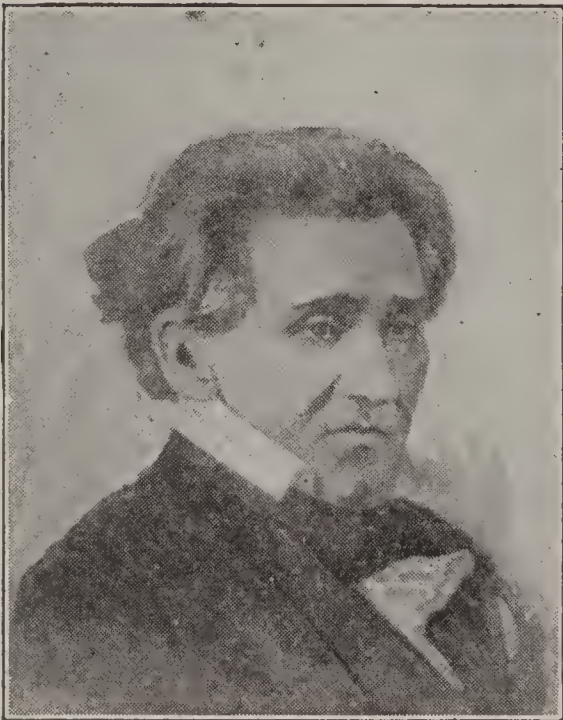
1. The Building of the Erie Canal.
2. Write an imaginative theme of two paragraphs describing a trip taken on an early railroad. (See picture on page 237.)

CHAPTER XXIII

ANDREW JACKSON'S ADMINISTRATION

DEMOCRAT—1829-1837

315. Jackson Elected. Andrew Jackson was the first man of humble birth and of little culture to become President. Born in the Carolina backwoods (1767), and left alone in the world at fifteen, he grew up amid the hostilities of the Revolution. Later, he made his way to that part of North Carolina now



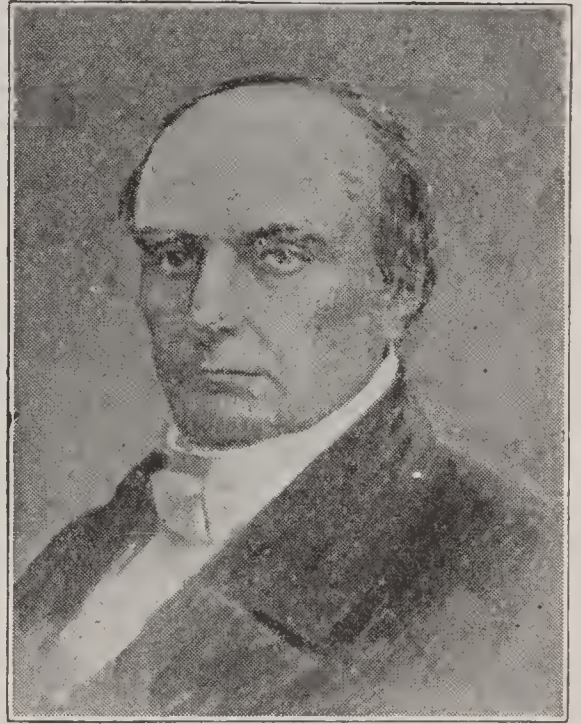
ANDREW JACKSON

known as Tennessee, and with a little knowledge of law began practice at the bar. He distinguished himself as a soldier, became a national hero in the war against the Creeks, in 1812, served as territorial governor of Florida, and became successively a United States Representative and Senator from Tennessee. The great popularity gained in his battles with the Indians and his wonderful endurance of hardships won for him the affectionate nickname of "Old Hickory."

Though unconventional in dress and manners, uneducated, self-confident and headstrong, he was noted for generosity of heart, honesty, and fearlessness. While hating his enemies intensely, he was devotedly attached to his friends, and even so blind to their faults that, at times, he unconsciously became the instru-

ment through which unprincipled office and money seekers accomplished their schemes.

316. The Spoils System. No sooner was Jackson inaugurated than crowds of his supporters hastened to Washington to receive their reward. Believing that "to the victors belong the spoils," Jackson allowed the "spoils system," already in operation in all the states, to be introduced into the national administration. The old officials who belonged to the defeated party were turned out, and their places were filled with men belonging to the successful party. During the first year of his presidency Jackson removed more officials than his six predecessors had removed in forty years. Thus began the corrupt system called "rotation in office." It is but just, however, to say that Jackson was desirous of appointing only men of ability, although he was frequently misled in his selection through the advice of friends. Consequently, a large number of political scandals marked his administration, though he himself was honest.



DANIEL WEBSTER

317. The Webster-Hayne Debate. While the topics of tariff and nullification were being discussed, one of the greatest debates in our annals took place in the United States Senate (1830) between Robert Y. Hayne, the spokesman of Calhoun, and Daniel Webster of Massachusetts. Hayne, presenting Calhoun's theory of states' rights, declared that the Constitution was a mere compact formed by sovereign states, from which any state might withdraw whenever it saw fit to do so. A state, said Hayne, might declare an act of Congress null and void in case it

thought that the government had exceeded its powers. Webster replied that the Constitution was the "supreme law of the people and answerable to the people"; hence, that no state had the right to withdraw from the Union; neither could any state nullify an act of Congress on the ground that such act was unconstitutional, since it belonged to the Supreme Court, and not to the state courts, to decide the constitutionality of the acts of Congress.

Webster's closing words, "Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable," which rang through the hall then, have rung throughout the land to the present day. The debate won for Webster the title of "Defender of the Constitution."

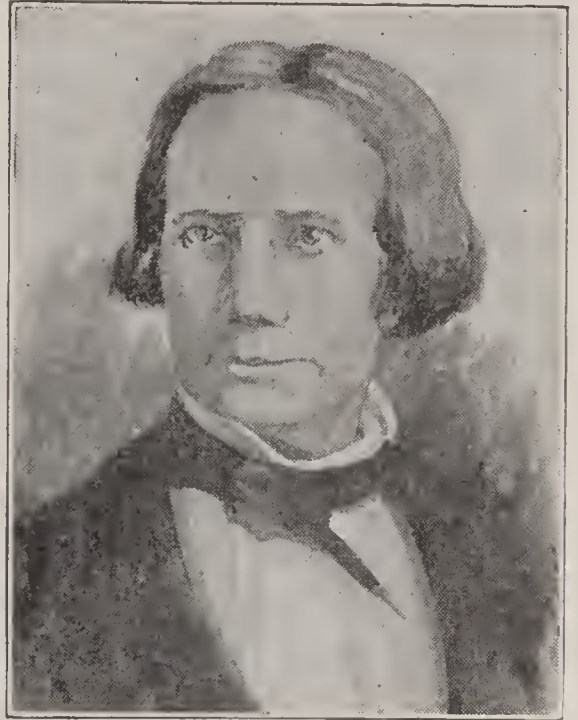
318. The South Carolina Nullification Act. The "tariff of abominations" had brought South Carolina, led by Calhoun, to the verge of rebellion and secession. The state was only waiting to see what the new administration would do. Though Congress (1832), in revising the tariff of 1828, slightly lowered the rates, it also recognized the protective tariff system. South Carolina promptly passed the Nullification Act, which declared that the tariff acts of 1828 and 1832, being "null, void, and no law," were not binding upon the states or their citizens. She threatened to leave the Union in case the Federal government attempted to enforce the acts. This Nullification Act was to go into effect February 1, 1833.

Enraged by South Carolina's action, the President promptly sent General Scott and two war vessels to the port of Charleston, and ordered the revenue commissioners at that port to collect the duties on imports under the protection of a military force. He issued a proclamation which declared that the Constitution did not form a compact, but a government; that nullification was unconstitutional; and that he would enforce the laws without fear or favor.

The South Carolina leaders knew that Jackson was not in favor of high tariff duties, and hoped to win him for their cause. In this they were greatly disappointed. Jackson, in a bold

declaration that the laws of the United States must be executed, said: "My duty is emphatically pronounced in the Constitution; those who told you that you might peaceably prevent their execution deceived you—their object is disunion, and disunion by armed force is treason."

Meanwhile Henry Clay introduced (1833) a compromise tariff measure, by which tariff rates were to be reduced gradually for ten years (until July, 1842), from which time there should be on all imported articles a duty equal to twenty per cent of their value. Clay's Compromise Tariff passed Congress. Satisfied by this act, South Carolina repealed her nullification ordinances.



HENRY CLAY

319. Jackson and the Bank.

Jackson, like most other Democrats, believed that the United States Bank was unconstitutional; that it enriched its managers at the expense of the people; that it had grown corrupt and dangerous to the freedom of the country; and that it used its powerful influence in politics.

Upon Clay's advice, the friends of the Bank (1832) brought matters to a crisis by introducing into Congress a bill to recharter it for twenty years longer, though the old charter would not expire till 1836. After a heated discussion, lasting five months, the bill passed both houses of Congress. Jackson, however, promptly vetoed it. The campaign cry for 1832 became "Jackson or the Bank."

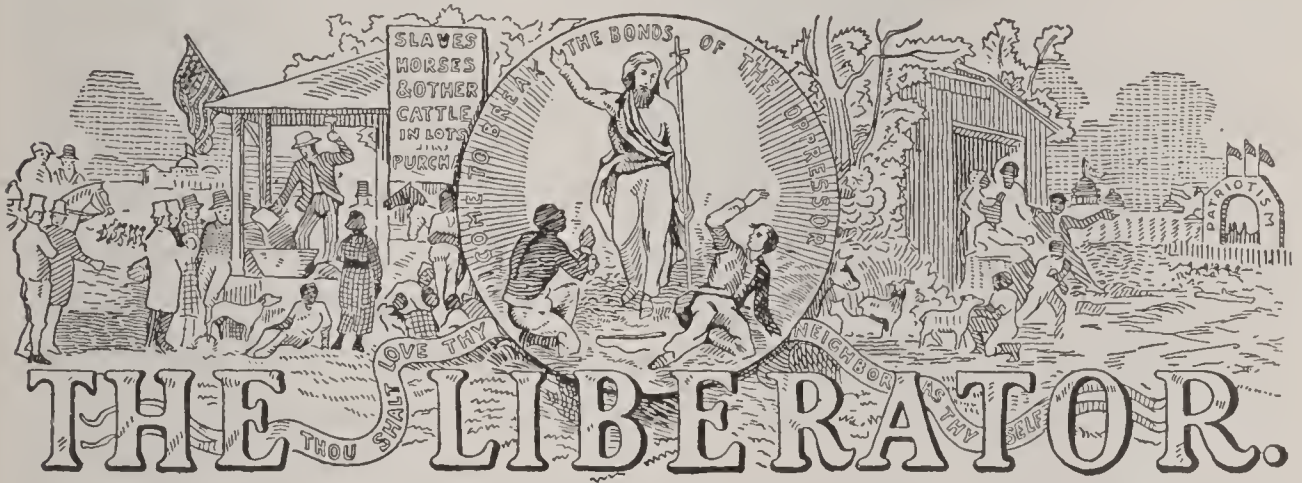
320. Jackson Is Reëlected—He Withdraws the Government Deposits. Jackson was reëlected President (1832) by an overwhelming majority over Henry Clay. Martin Van Buren was

chosen Vice-president to succeed Calhoun, who had served during Jackson's first term of office.

Regarding his reelection as an approval of his anti-Bank policy, Jackson decided to give the Bank a final blow. He promptly ordered (1833) the removal of the government deposits from the Bank, and the placing of future deposits in certain state banks, situated chiefly in the South and West. These banks came to be known as "pet banks." Meanwhile, state banks, termed "wild-cat banks," were springing up on every side. The origin of the name "wild-cat" banks came about as follows: The notes of a Michigan bank bore on them a picture of a wild-cat; when this bank failed its notes became known as wild-cat notes and, subsequently, all banks that could not redeem their bills (pay them in gold or silver) were called "wild-cat banks," and their notes "wild-cat money." Within eight years the number of these banks increased from three hundred twenty-nine to seven hundred eighty-eight. Hundreds of these, having no capital at all, received deposits, and flooded the country with their notes, called "rag money." People could now borrow money more easily than ever before. This "wild-cat banking" gave rise to even wilder speculation, which extended to every branch of trade, especially in the western states and territories. Eager to grow rich, people bought government lands which they expected to sell at enormously increased rates. Everybody was borrowing in order to buy, sell, and get rich.

321. Jackson's Specie Circular. Jackson, becoming greatly alarmed, determined to protect at least the United States Treasury against unsound money. Contrary to the advice of the Cabinet, he issued (1836) his celebrated "Specie Circular," by which he ordered the land agents to receive only gold and silver in payment for government land. The effects were immediate. The great demand for gold and silver created a scarcity of this coin. A crash was inevitable, but before it came Jackson had retired from office, confident that the "Specie Circular" would restore prosperity.

322. Surplus Government Money Loaned to the States. By January, 1835, the government had paid all its debts. It was collecting about thirty-five million dollars revenue a year more than it could expend. The "pet banks" had already received about eleven million dollars. Acting on the advice of Calhoun, Congress loaned, without interest, the surplus funds to the states, in proportion to the number of their representatives. It was not long before the financial crash came, and the government was obliged to borrow money to pay its current expenses. The money loaned to the states, and never recalled, was used chiefly in the construction of public works.



HEADING OF GARRISON'S PAPER

323. Anti-Slavery Movement. William Lloyd Garrison, a Boston printer, who had spent some time in the South and had come face to face with slavery on its own soil, established an anti-slavery paper, called the "Liberator," in which he expressed hostility to slavery. He declared that it should be abolished at once, denouncing it as "a sin against God and a crime against man." But the prevalent sentiment of the North at the time was against abolition, because it was feared that the abolition movement would imperil the peace of the country. Many people held with Webster that it was better to save the Union with slavery than to destroy it deliberately for the sake of giving freedom to the negro.

Within a year, however, the influence of Garrison's writings had spread so widely that hundreds of societies had been formed in the North for the purpose of abolishing slavery. They numbered among their members the famous Wendell Philips, called the "silver-tongued orator," and Theodore Parker, a learned preacher who, in burning language, rebuked the advocates of slavery. Lectures, pamphlets, books, and newspapers propagated among the people the anti-slavery ideas of the abolitionists.

324. The "Gag Law." The abolitionists flooded Congress with petitions to abolish slavery in the District of Columbia and to discontinue the trade of slaves between the different southern states. The Southerners, dreading the effects of the constant discussions of the slavery topic, passed in the House of Representatives a "gag law," by which all bills relating in any way to the subject of slavery should be laid aside without any further action thereon. John Quincy Adams denounced the "gag law" before the House as a direct violation of the Constitution, but it continued in effect for several years (1836-1844).

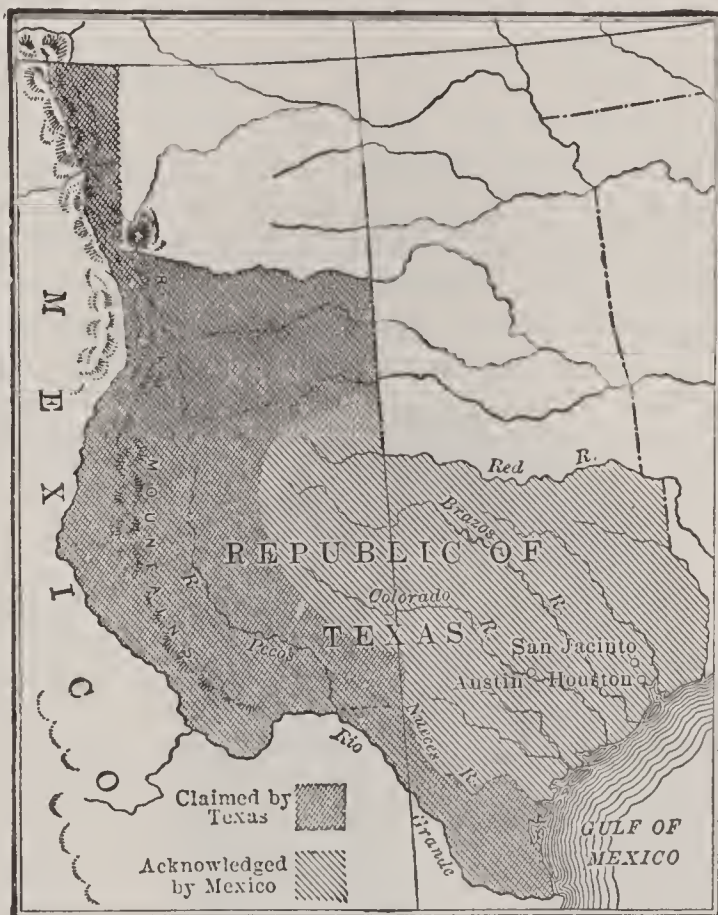
The southern people held that inasmuch as the whole industrial system of the South was built upon slavery, abolition would cause the financial ruin of their section of the Union.

325. Foreign Affairs. Before Mexican independence was established, some hundred American families, under Stephen F. Austin, settled, with the consent of Spain, in that part of Mexico which is included in the present state of Texas. After Mexico had declared her independence of Spain, the Texans declared their independence. Mexico immediately declared war against Texas. At Fort Alamo, a former Franciscan mission house, the Texan garrison was overpowered and massacred. Thereafter the rallying cry of Texas was, "Remember the Alamo!" Finally, under Samuel Houston, the Texans defeated the Mexicans, under Santa Anna, in the battle of San Jacinto; thus Texan independence was secured (1836), and was acknowledged by the United States (1837).

326. New States. Two states were admitted during the administration: Arkansas, a slave state, as the twenty-fifth (1836); and Michigan, a free state, as the twenty-sixth (1837).

327. First Provincial Council—Anti-Catholic Attacks. During Jackson's administration the first Provincial Council (the first held in the nineteenth century and the first in any English-speaking country since the Reformation) was convened in 1829 at Baltimore. At this Council Archbishop Whitefield and five of the eight bishops of the United States represented the Catholic Church in America, and many wise regulations for its government were adopted.

From the beginning of the establishment of Catholicism in America, there existed a party called Nativists, which, under the pretext of defending American institutions, carried on a warfare, sometimes open and sometimes secret, against the Catholic Church. Although there had been no open sign of hostility against the Catholic Church for nearly a generation, unhappily, as time went on, its growth was regarded by the Nativists with disfavor. Vile books, sermons, and lectures against the Catholic religion gradually gave rise to such excitement that a mob (August 11, 1834) attacked the Ursuline Convent at Charlestown, near Boston, drove out the defenseless nuns and children, and burned their home to the ground. St. Mary's Church in New York was also plundered and burned.



The government made no attempt to prevent these outrages, and the leaders were subjected to only a farcical trial, which resulted in their acquittal.

Questions

1. Contrast Andrew Jackson with George Washington.
2. What is meant by the spoils system? How have we lessened its evils?
3. What is meant by nullification? What great debate took place in Congress on this question? What were each speaker's arguments? What was Jackson's attitude? How did Jackson receive South Carolina's Nullification Act? How was South Carolina pacified?
4. What was Jackson's attitude toward the United States Bank? What did he do? Explain "wild-cat" money and banks. What was Jackson's Specie Circular? What resulted from its issuance?
5. What did Garrison propose? Who helped him? Why did the North at first oppose the abolition of slavery? What was the "Gag Law"?
6. How did Texas become a part of the United States?
7. When and where was the first Provincial Council held in America? Describe the work of the Nativists.

Theme Topics

1. Be prepared to give during the language period a description of the life of Andrew Jackson.
2. Describe orally the Hayne-Webster debate.
3. Find out as much as you can about how banks issue money today, and write a short theme on it.

CHAPTER XXIV

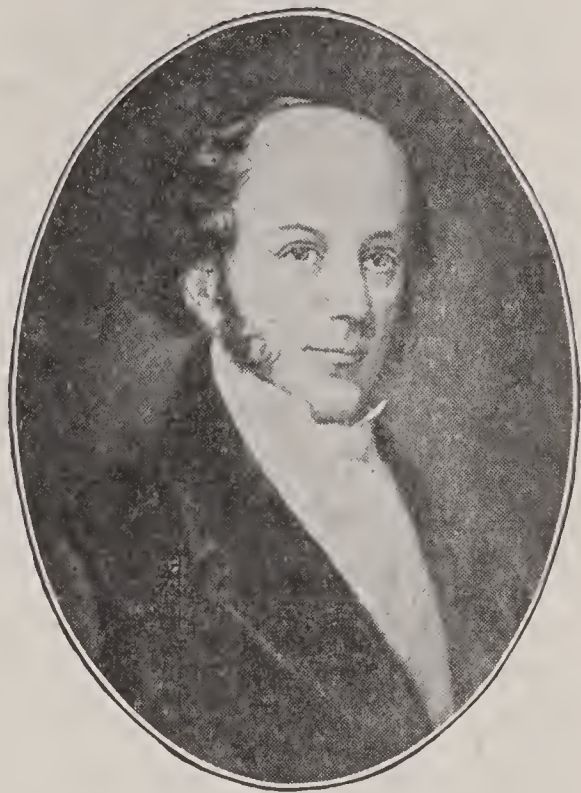
MARTIN VAN BUREN'S ADMINISTRATION

DEMOCRAT—1837-1844

328. Van Buren Elected. Martin Van Buren (1782-1862), the eighth President, was born of Dutch ancestry at Kinderhook, New York. He had been United States Senator, Governor of New York, Secretary of State, and Vice-president. Though unpopular from the beginning of his administration, Van Buren showed himself to be an able political manager, winning by tact and geniality in dealing with his opponents the title "Little Magician."

329. The Panic of 1837. Van Buren had scarcely taken the oath of office before the country was in the midst of the worst financial panic it had ever experienced. People who had gone in debt were ruined. Bank after bank—"pet banks" and "wild-cat banks"—failed. Business houses went bankrupt. Factories closed their doors, and

thousands of laborers were thrown out of work. Poor crops in the middle and western states added to the general distress. High prices and high rents weighed heavily on the poor. Flour rose to eleven dollars a barrel and corn to one dollar and fifteen cents



MARTIN VAN BUREN

per bushel. Strikes and bread riots occurred in cities, and the people called loudly for help from the government. But the national government had not even the money to pay its officials. Adams truthfully declared, "Without a dollar of national debt, we are in the midst of national bankruptcy." Individual states had borrowed millions of dollars from European nations and now found it impossible to raise money to pay the principal or to meet the interest. For many years afterwards Europeans looked with disfavor on American securities.

The causes for the panic may be traced to reckless banking and to wild speculation. The danger of the banking system arose from the fact that the banks issued notes (promises of money), though they had no money or capital to redeem their promise.

330. The Independent Treasury. The experience which the government had passed through twice (1814, 1837) proved that it was not safe to deposit the nation's money in state banks. Van Buren called a special session of Congress to devise some plan for protecting the funds of the United States. This session passed (1840) the Independent Treasury Act, which provided that the government should maintain a safe place in which to keep its money in order that the nation's funds might not be exposed to a risk of loss in state banks, as was the case in the disastrous failure of the "pet banks." Congress furthermore provided that all the officials of the government should give security for the proper discharge of their duties, and that all payments to or by the United States should be exclusively in gold or silver.

The Independent Treasury plan was repealed soon after, but was later reënacted (1846), and is in existence today. By this excellent system, which we owe mainly to President Van Buren, the public money is deposited in vaults and safes in the Treasury building at Washington, and in the Sub-treasuries of New York, Philadelphia, Chicago, Boston, St. Louis, Cincinnati, San Francisco, New Orleans, and Baltimore.

331. The Mormons. A new religious sect, the Mormons, or "Latter-Day Saints," sprang up about 1830, at Manchester, New York. Its leader, Joseph Smith, the son of a Vermont farmer, claimed to have received from heaven, revelations written in mystic characters on plates of brass. From the beginning the new sect met with great opposition because of its strange teachings. Smith and his followers emigrated to Ohio (1831), but they were soon driven out of the state by the citizens (1838). They later met the same fate in Missouri. In Illinois, where they were kindly received, they built their "Holy City," Nauvoo, and gathered in that vicinity to the number of twenty thousand. Later, however, Smith aroused popular indignation by causing the destruction of a press which had denounced his doctrine of polygamy. In 1844 the Mormon leader and his brother were imprisoned and later shot by a mob, in the jail at Carthage, Illinois.

Shortly after, the Mormons, under their new leader, Brigham Young, moved westward and founded Salt Lake City, Utah (1847).

332. Foreign Immigration—Progress of Catholicity. A regular line of steamships had been established between Liverpool and Boston (1830), and later between Liverpool and New York, and immigration poured into the United States. In ten years (1830-1840) more than one hundred thousand Europeans landed in New York alone.

This decade of immigration marks a period of great development in Catholicity throughout the United States. New bishoprics were erected in the West; cathedrals were built; convents, seminaries, colleges, schools, and orphan asylums founded; and a number of Catholic newspapers established. Unfortunately many of the immigrants were loud in expressing their old world national prejudices. The formation of the Holy Alliance; enthusiastic lectures given in Europe for the purpose of encouraging missionary work in the United States; the founding of the Leopoldina Society in Vienna, Austria, for the

same purpose—all these activities were persistently misinterpreted as so many attempts of the Catholic powers to destroy the free institutions of America. Bigots of the worst type incited the imagination of Protestants against the Church and assailed her from pulpit and platform.

Conscience obliged the American Catholics to maintain their own parochial schools, but at the same time they were taxed for the support of the public schools. Accordingly, they demanded a share in the public educational funds. Moreover, they demanded that in the public schools the Protestant Bible should not be forced on Catholic children. The latter demand was granted them in course of time, but they have never been relieved from double taxation.

333. Political Parties. The country was now divided into three parties:

- (a) the Whig (National-Republican), which had gained greatly in strength, as it had been reënforced by adherents from the South who opposed Jackson's views on the question of nullification;
- (b) the Democratic party;
- (c) the Anti-slavery, or Liberty party, an outgrowth of the abolition movement.

Questions

1. What caused the financial panic during Van Buren's administration? What happened to the country? What did Congress do to protect government money in the future?
2. Who were the Mormons? Trace their movement westward.
3. What were the effects of immigration upon the progress of Catholicity?
4. What three political parties were now in existence?

Theme Topic

Write a short sketch of the life of Van Buren.

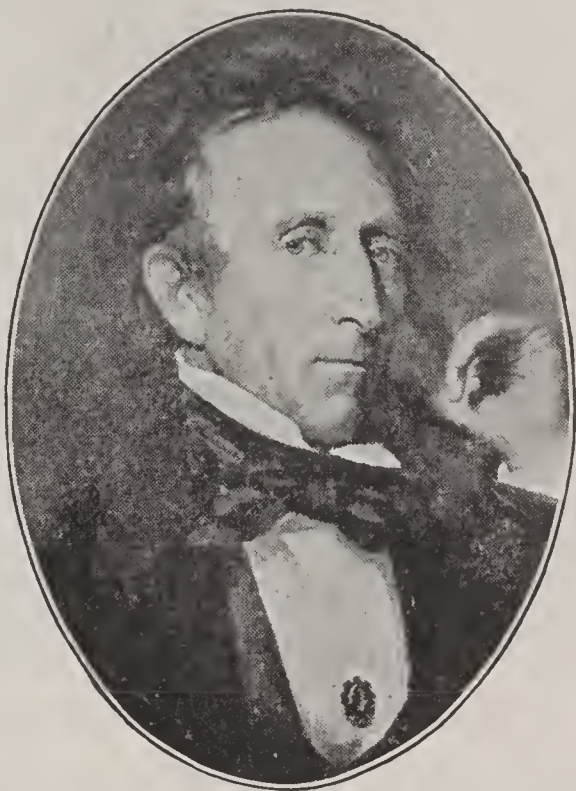
CHAPTER XXV

THE HARRISON-TYLER ADMINISTRATION

WHIG—1841-1845

334. Harrison Elected—Tyler Succeeds Him. William Harrison (1773-1841), the ninth President, was a native of Virginia, and the son of Benjamin Harrison, a signer of the Declaration of Independence. He was the hero of Tippecanoe and of the victory on the Thames (1812). He had been Governor of Indiana Territory and had served as Representative and Senator in the United States Congress. For a number of years he had taken no part in public life; in fact, at the time of his election he was attending to the affairs of his farm in Ohio. One month after his inauguration, he suddenly died.

John Tyler, the Vice-president, succeeded to the presidency. Although Tyler had been elected by the Whigs, he was at heart a Democrat. After he had become President, he constantly quarreled with the men who had elected him, he angered his Cabinet by refusing to carry out their suggestions, and he estranged himself from the members of Congress by vetoing bills that they considered of the highest importance. When the President vetoed two bills relating to banks, the Whigs be-



JOHN TYLER

came indignant. Every member of his cabinet except Webster, the Secretary of State, resigned. Webster remained in order to complete a negotiation that had been begun with Great Britain.

335. Webster-Ashburton Treaty. By an agreement between Webster and Lord Ashburton, of England, a treaty was signed (1842) at Washington. This treaty fixed the disputed north-eastern boundary of Maine, between the United States and Canada, as far west as the Lake of the Woods. It also renewed our fishing rights in British waters, and settled one or two other disputed questions.

336. Dorr's Rebellion. Rhode Island was still governed by its colonial charter. Under it no man was allowed to vote unless he held real estate worth one hundred and thirty-four dollars, or property renting for seven dollars a year, or was the eldest son of such a "freeman." An attempt of the people to secure a more liberal state constitution (1842) ended in the so-called Dorr Rebellion. The "people's party," headed by Thomas W. Dorr, proceeded to seize the state property by force and to set up a government under a new constitution. Tyler sent United States troops into the state to uphold the old government. Dorr was convicted and sentenced to imprisonment for life, but was eventually pardoned. Later a more liberal constitution was adopted.

337. The First Electric Telegraph. Samuel F. B. Morse, after four years of effort (1844), finally received from Congress a grant of thirty thousand dollars for the purpose of erecting an experimental telegraph line between Baltimore and Washington (forty miles). The first message, "What hath God wrought," proved the success of an invention which today covers the United States like a network. The first public message was the announcement of the nomination of James K. Polk for the presidency by a Democratic convention.

338. Native-American Riots. The Native-American party, which had been founded by the Nativists in 1841, caused a

dreadful riot in Philadelphia (1844). An army of ruffians, hounded on by pulpit harangues of fanatical ministers, destroyed two Catholic churches, a house of the Sisters of Charity, the valuable library of the Augustinian Fathers, and a number of private dwellings occupied by Catholics. A similar riot in New York was prevented by the firmness of Bishop Hughes, the champion of Catholicity and Catholic education in the state.



THE OREGON COUNTRY

During the agitation of the "School Question" (1841) Bishop Hughes again, with matchless ability, defended the Catholic side in the Legislature.

339. The Annexation of Texas and the Occupation of Oregon Become Party Issues. Texas had applied for admission into the Union during Van Buren's administration, but the President did not favor its annexation. The matter was again

urged during Tyler's administration, and a treaty was finally negotiated by Calhoun as secretary of state by which Texas was to become an American territory. This was rejected by the Senate. The question now became the leading issue in the presidential campaign of the year. There was much opposition in the North to the admission of Texas, partly because it threatened to involve the country in war with Mexico, and partly because it would increase the area of slavery. On these grounds Clay, though in favor of annexation, opposed immediate action.

A treaty (1818) with Great Britain had left the Oregon country for ten years to joint occupancy, and another treaty made by the United States and Russia had fixed the parallel of $54^{\circ} 40'$ as the extreme southern boundary of Alaska. Meanwhile about twelve thousand Americans had settled in Oregon, and they naturally demanded a settlement of the boundary and an end of joint occupancy. At first the United States had been willing to extend the line of the forty-ninth parallel, which was the boundary line to the Rockies, all the way to the Pacific, but Great Britain refused. Soon the matter became a party question.

The platform of the Democratic party now included the annexation of Texas and the re-occupation of Oregon. It claimed that the annexation of Texas, which was slave soil, could be offset by the acquisition of the whole of Oregon, which was free soil; hence, the Democratic campaign cries were: "The annexation of Texas," "Fifty-four forty or fight."

The missionaries were among the first Americans to find their way to the Oregon country. Through the Canadian fur trading posts a number of them, among whom were Fathers Blanchet and Demers, came from Montreal to Oregon and established many missions. Two years later the youthful and saintly Father De Smet, the famous Jesuit missionary of Florissant, Missouri, set out from the Missouri River with a large party of Oregon-bound emigrants, and founded (1841) the first of his many missions among the Flathead Indians. Not long

after, he brought from Europe to the Oregon missions four priests and six sisters of Notre Dame of Namur. The sisters at once opened a school for girls. So rapid was the progress of the Catholic Church in Oregon that Father Blanchet was soon appointed bishop (1843).

340. New States. Tyler, foreseeing the outcome of the presidential campaign, urged the annexation of Texas. Three days before the expiration of his term a resolution annexing it to the United States as a slave state (twenty-eighth state) passed Congress, and was immediately signed by the President (1845). During the same year Florida had been admitted into the Union as the twenty-seventh state, with slavery.

Questions

1. Why did practically all of President Tyler's cabinet resign?
2. What was the Webster-Ashburton Treaty?
3. What caused Dorr's rebellion?
4. Why did the North oppose the annexation of Texas? Why did the South advocate the "Fifty-four forty line"? Find the location of the parallel $54^{\circ} 40'$ on the map of North America.

Theme Topics

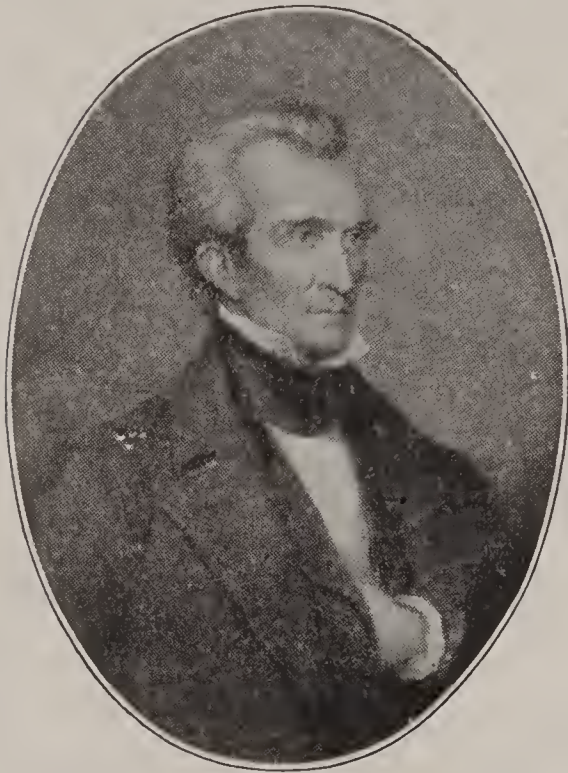
1. Samuel F. B. Morse.
2. Be prepared to give orally a short account of the life and work of Daniel Webster.

CHAPTER XXVI

JAMES K. POLK'S ADMINISTRATION

DEMOCRAT—1845-1849

341. Polk Elected. James K. Polk (1795-1849), the eleventh President, was a native of North Carolina. He was successively



JAMES K. POLK

congressman, governor of Tennessee, where he had moved in 1806, and speaker of the House of Representatives, but was in no wise an eminent or brilliant man. However, like Jackson, his intimate friend, he was a man of stanch character. No sooner had he been inaugurated than he proceeded with much vigor to carry out his party's policy.

342. Polk's Program. Polk was elected mainly to effect the annexation of Texas, but he found this task performed before he came into office. He at once determined upon four measures, all of which, with a Democratic

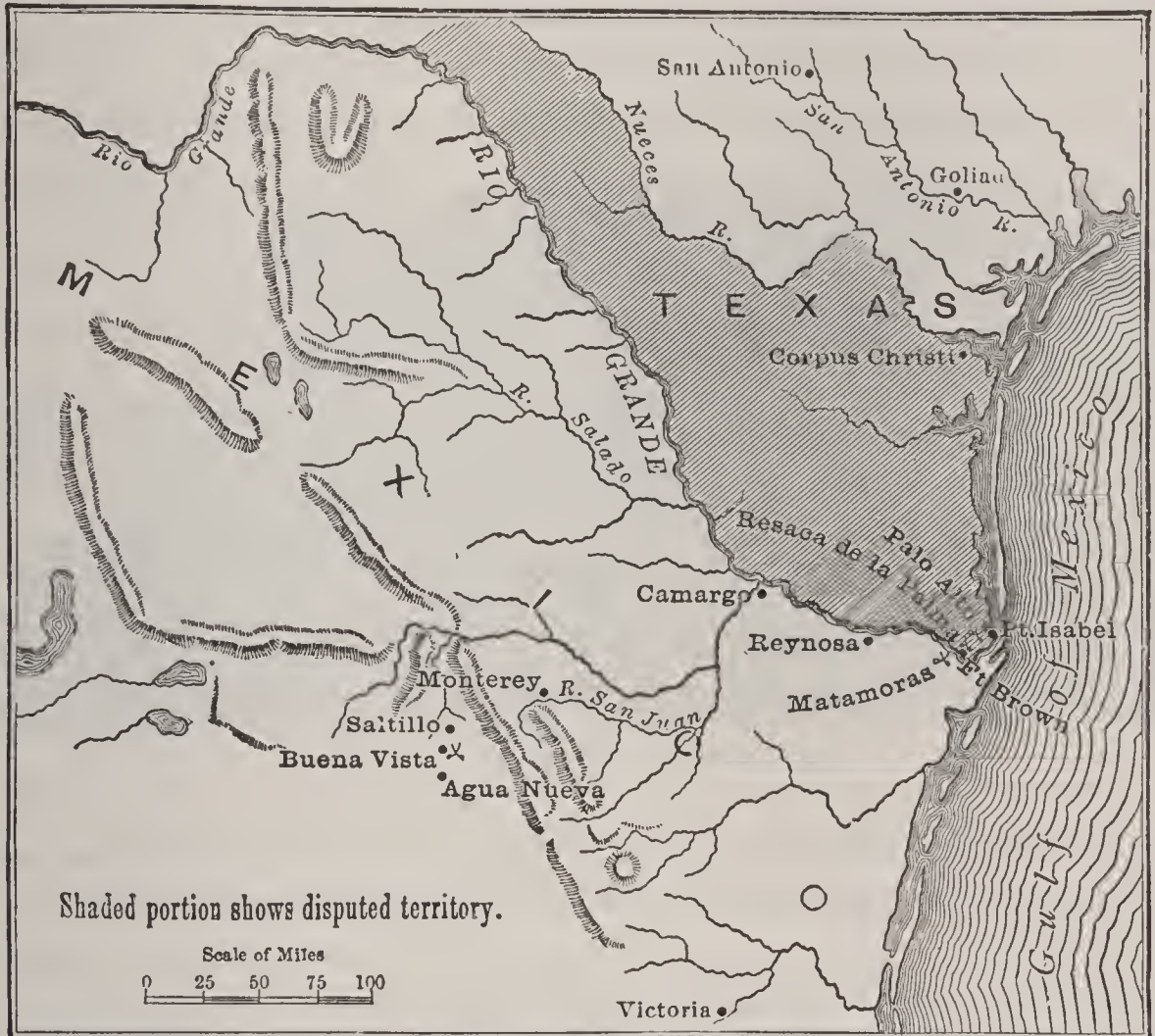
majority in Congress, he carried out successfully:

- (a) the reduction of the tariff;
- (b) the reëstablishment of the Independent Treasury (1846);
- (c) the settlement of the Oregon boundary dispute by a treaty with Great Britain (1846), which provided that the line of 49° (the boundary from the Lake of the Woods to

the crest of the Rocky Mountains) be extended through the Oregon country to the Pacific;

(d) the acquisition of California.

343. Pretexts for War with Mexico—War Declared. A boundary dispute arose between Texas and Mexico. Texas maintained that her territory extended to the Rio Grande; Mexico claimed the Nueces River as its boundary limit. President Polk,



siding with the Texans, claimed the country as far west as the Rio Grande, and ordered General Zachary Taylor (April, 1846) to occupy the disputed territory.

The Mexicans crossed the Rio Grande and attacked the Americans. Shortly before this, Mexico had refused to receive our minister. Polk promptly informed Congress, "Mexico has refused to receive our minister, has passed the boundary

of the United States, has invaded our territory, and has shed American blood upon American soil." Congress, adopting the assertions of the President without any inquiry into their truth, affirmed (May 13, 1846) that the action of the Republic of Mexico was a declaration of war against the United States. It at once voted money supplies, and called for fifty thousand volunteers.

Calhoun, in the South, and the Whigs in the North, especially the people of New England and the anti-slavery men, strongly opposed war and loudly denounced Polk and his or-



THE ADVANCE TOWARD MEXICO

ders. Unfortunately, it appears that our government was willing to settle the Oregon boundary dispute by compromise with Great Britain, a strong nation, while it enforced by violence the whole of its claim against Mexico, a weak nation.

344. Plan of the War. The plan of the war embraced an attack upon the northern part of Mexico, an assault upon the Mexican capital, and a naval attack upon the Pacific coast.

General Taylor started from the mouth of the Nueces River, and after a series of victories over the Mexicans, pushed into Mexico. General Kearny conquered New Mexico. John C. Fremont, who, before the outbreak of the war, had been sent to explore the region between Great Salt Lake and the Pacific,

conquered California. General Scott, supported by Commodore Perry's fleet, landed at Vera Cruz and marched up the mountain with the intention of taking the city of Mexico. After twice defeating the Mexican general, Santa Anna, he triumphantly entered the city (September 18, 1847) where he hoisted the American flag.

345. Mexico Surrenders—The Treaty of Peace. In less than two years a series of desperate battles ended in an unbroken victory for our arms. The Mexicans, with their army helpless and their government broken up, were compelled to submit and sign a treaty of peace (1848) at Guadalupe Hidalgo. By this treaty, Mexico gave to the United States all territory north of the Rio Grande and Gila Rivers, which, besides Texas, comprises New Mexico, California, Nevada, Utah, Arizona, and parts of Colorado and Wyoming—in all, nearly one million square miles. The United States paid Mexico fifteen million dollars and, further, gave three million dollars to American citizens who had claims against Mexico.

346. The Wilmot Proviso. When the outcome of the war seemed certain, David Wilmot, a northern anti-slavery man, offered to Congress the Wilmot Proviso, which provided that slavery be forever excluded from the lands to be acquired from Mexico. The whole South rose in opposition. The bill was lost in the Senate; but it made the question of slavery in the Mexican cession the principal issue in the campaign of 1848.

The Democrats were divided on the question. The northern anti-slavery Democrats favored the Wilmot Proviso; the southern pro-slavery Democrats opposed it. The Whigs also were divided, for the southern section opposed the Proviso, while the northern greatly favored it. Many of the Whigs separated from their party, joined the Democrats who had withdrawn from their party, and formed the "Free-Soil" party, which adopted as its watchword "Free soil, free speech, free labor, and free men." Thus we see that the two old parties were beginning to break up on the slavery question.

347. The Discovery of Gold in California. A few days before the peace of Guadalupe (January, 1848), gold was discovered in the valley of the Sacramento, about one hundred miles north-east of San Francisco. James W. Marshall, a millwright in the employ of Colonel Sutter, a Swiss settler, found a number of kernels of metal which were about the size of grains of wheat; upon test they proved to be solid gold. The discovery of the precious metal was for a time kept secret; but the workers in the mill soon learned of it, and the fact was an-



A NIGHT ON THE CALIFORNIA TRAIL

nounced in a San Francisco paper. From all parts of the Union and, indeed, from all parts of the world, eager gold seekers, afterwards styled "forty-niners," flocked over the plains, across the isthmus or around the Horn, to the gold fields. By the autumn of 1849, California contained nearly one hundred thousand people, and San Francisco sprang up, as if by magic, from a little village to a city of twenty thousand. This large population was composed of all sorts and conditions of men, who were at first governed only by vigilance committees and

lynch laws. Before long, however, the people organized themselves in an orderly way into a state and adopted a constitution in which slavery was forbidden. Even before a code of laws could be framed for the territory, the Californians asked to be admitted to the Union (1850). The Senate, however, rejected the application because of the clause in their new constitution which prohibited slavery.

The discovery of gold in California gave to the United States a firm possession of the Pacific coast by rapidly peopling the California wilderness. It also caused the establishment of new lines of steamships, new railroad routes, and new markets, for after the gold mines became less profitable, the people set about the cultivation of the land and the raising of sheep and cattle. California later became the chief fruit-growing region of the United States.

348. Two New States. During Polk's administration, two non-slaveholding states were admitted to the Union: Iowa (1846), the twenty-ninth state, and Wisconsin (1848), the thirtieth state.

349. Indian Missions in Mexico and California. New Mexico had been explored and the natives christianized by Spanish missionaries more than three hundred years (1539) before the territory had become a part of the United States. So rapid was the progress of these early missions, that within the space of a few years twenty-seven stations were established, many of which possessed large churches. The Indian converts, who were numbered by thousands, had learned to read and write, and had adopted the customs of civilization. Though the hostility of pagan tribes and the oppression of civil authority sadly harassed the prosperity of these Catholic Indian missions, they have never been entirely suppressed.

The mission of San Francisco was founded contemporaneously with the declaration of American independence (1776). The Franciscans, under their superior, Father Serra, established San Diego as their first mission (1769). The founding

of Monterey followed (1770); then in rapid succession, San Francisco (1776), Santa Clara (1777), Los Angeles (1781), Santa Barbara (1786), San Jose (1797), and many others, until an unbroken chain of missions, more than twenty in number, linked San Diego with San Francisco. Under the supervision of the zealous sons of St. Francis of Assisi, the roving savages were soon won for the Church and civilization, and were ultimately transformed into orderly, industrious, and ex-



THE CHAPEL OF THE SAN GABRIEL MISSION

pert farmers, masons, or weavers. At one time the Catholic missions numbered about thirty thousand Indians, whose thrift and prosperity were attested to by their possession of over four thousand head of cattle, sixty-two thousand horses, and more than three hundred thousand sheep. Many of the missionaries had been noted in Spain as men of culture, as soldiers, engineers, artists, lawyers, and physicians before they wore the humble garb of their Order, but they did not scorn to labor

with their charges in the fields, in brickyards, at the forge, or in the mills.

By a decree of the Mexican Congress, the Indian missions were eventually made state property. The converts being thus scattered, within five years the number of Catholic Indians was reduced from thirty thousand to four thousand. When California became a territory of the United States only a few remains of the once prosperous missions could be traced. The Jesuits early began (1697) the work of spreading the Gospel among the native Indians of Lower California, and continued this work until the society was finally expelled from the Spanish domains (1767).

350. America's Patroness. America, from the very date of its discovery, was loyally devoted to the Mother of God. In (1846) the Sixth Council of Baltimore, by its first act, solemnly chose Mary the Immaculate as patroness of the Catholic Church in the United States.

Questions

1. During this administration what was done with the tariff? With the Treasury? With the Oregon boundary? Locate on the map the 49° parallel.
2. State the events leading to the Mexican War. Why did the North oppose this war? Locate on the map the territory added to the United States when the treaty of peace was signed. Compare the area of this territory with that obtained by the Louisiana Purchase. Describe the effect of the discovery of gold in California.
3. What was the Wilmot Proviso? What new party did it cause to be formed? Who were included in this new party?
4. Locate on the map the Indian Missions of California.
5. Who is the patroness of the Catholic Church in America?

Theme Topics

1. The California Mission System.
2. The Story of Henry Clay.
3. The Rush for Gold.

CHAPTER XXVII

THE TAYLOR-FILLMORE ADMINISTRATION

WHIG—1849-1853

351. Taylor and Fillmore Elected. At the election of 1848, Zachary Taylor (1784-1850) of Louisiana, the Whig nominee, was elected as the twelfth President. Millard Fillmore was chosen Vice-president.

Taylor, a native of Virginia, had fought in the War of 1812, the Black Hawk War, and the Mexican War. He was, on the whole, more of a soldier than a politician. Though a slaveholder, he did not desire to see slavery extended to the territories where the people opposed it. He was much loved by his soldiers, who called him "Old Rough and Ready."

352. Debates on the Extension of Slavery in the Territories. When General Taylor was inaugurated President, the North and the South were already engaged in passionate disputes over the slavery problem, which was forcing them farther and farther apart. The points in dispute between the two sections were chiefly the following:

- (a) the North wanted California admitted as a free-soil state; the South would not consent, demanding the division of the territory by the extension of the Missouri Compromise line (the parallel of $36^{\circ} 30'$) to the Pacific;
- (b) the Northerners insisted that the slave trade be abolished in the District of Columbia; the Southerners complained that the Fugitive Slave Law of 1793 was not enforced in the free states and demanded a new and more stringent law;
- (c) the North demanded that there be no more slave states and no more slave territory; the South wanted slavery legalized in Utah and New Mexico;

- (d) Texas claimed the part of New Mexico lying east of the Rio Grande. She also asked the United States to assume her public debt. Both met with strenuous opposition from the North.

353. The Compromise of 1850. At this time Clay once more acted as peacemaker. He proposed the series of resolutions which were finally passed and are known as the "Compromise of 1850," or the Omnibus Bill. Its chief provisions were:

- (a) that California be admitted as a free state;
- (b) that New Mexico and Utah be organized as territories without provision as to slavery;
- (c) that Texas be paid ten million dollars to surrender her claim on New Mexico;
- (d) that the slave trade (not slavery) be abolished in the District of Columbia.

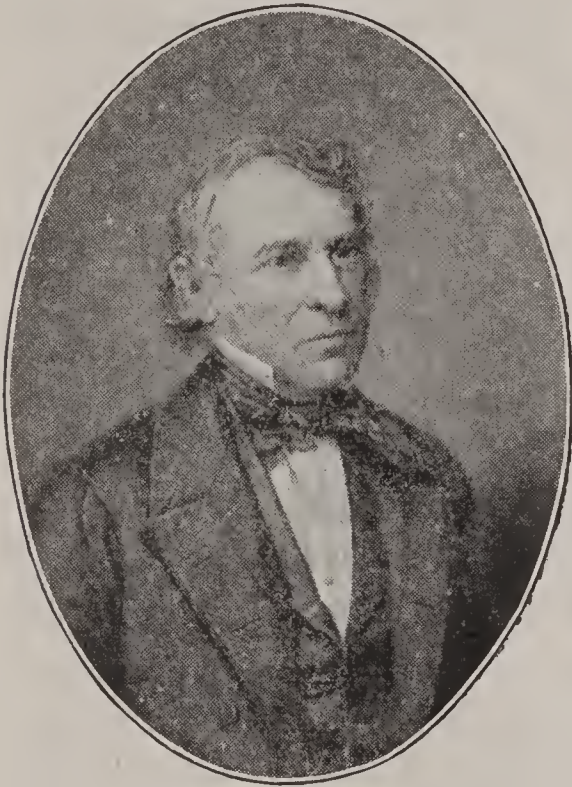
During a period of seven months the compromise measures formed the one great topic for debate in Congress and for discussion in the press and by the people of the entire country. Clay, now a venerable man of seventy-three, physically weak, himself a slaveholder, made an earnest appeal for peace and compromise. For two days he swayed the audience which filled the Senate chamber to overflowing.

John C. Calhoun, the great champion of states' rights, was so feeble that his speech had to be read for him by a friend. Wrapped in a cloak, his long white hair hanging down the sides of his pale, emaciated face, the great leader of the South sat in his chair motionless, statue-like, and, with the hand of death upon him, listened to his own words of appeal and warning to the North in behalf of his beloved South. He demanded an equal division of territory between the two sections, more effective laws for the return of fugitive slaves, and the complete and lasting cessation of slavery agitation.

Webster expressed his sincere love for the Union, and denounced both the northern and the southern agitators. He placed the chief blame, however, on the anti-slavery men. He

felt that the great duty of the hour was to save the Union, not to oppose slavery. The Union could be best preserved, he thought, by Clay's compromise. Though Webster's influence helped not only to secure the compromise, but also to postpone the awful war for a decade of years, he never again regained his former political prestige. (Read Whittier's poem, "Ichabod.")

354. Taylor's Death. The debate went on day after day. Separate provisions of Clay's compromise were passed; but



ZACHARY TAYLOR



MILLARD FILLMORE

while the question was still being considered, Taylor suddenly died, after having been in office only sixteen months. Vice-president Fillmore, an advocate of the compromise, who now became President, signed the last of the bills, the Fugitive Slave Law (September, 1850).

355. California Becomes a State—The Pony Express. The "pony express," which carried to California the news that she had been admitted to the Union as a free state (1850), established a means of communication between the East and the Pacific

coast. Stations some twenty miles apart were erected all the way from the Missouri River to the Sacramento, a distance of about two thousand miles. A messenger mounted on a fast pony set out across the plains to the first station, whence he took another horse and again sped away toward the next station. At every third station another rider took the mail. Eight days were required to traverse the distance, and frequently riders perished in the wintry blizzards or were killed by the Indians. The cost of sending a letter by the pony express was five dollars, which was soon reduced one-half. Some years later, stage coaches were used along similar routes.

356. The Fugitive Slave Law. The last of the measures included in the Omnibus Bill having been adopted, a wave of relief swept over the country. The people, with Clay, hoped that harmony and good will would once more prevail, as after the Missouri Compromise. But these hopes were not to be realized; the Fugitive Slave Law stood in the way. This law gave United States officers the power to turn over any negro who was claimed as an escaped slave to the person claiming him, denied the negro the right of trial by jury, and demanded that citizens called upon by officers, should aid in securing the return of a fugitive slave. This law, which was very offensive to the North, met with resistance in many places.

357. Personal Liberty Laws—Underground Railroad. The North determined not to return runaway slaves, but rather to protect and assist them to escape. Many of the northern states passed "Personal Liberty Laws," which really amounted to nullification of the fugitive law, since they did not permit the use of jails for the fugitives; forbade judges and officers to aid in the return of runaways; granted to slaves the right of trial by jury; and punished attempts to seize and return free negroes.

Many slaves, by means of the so-called "Underground Railroad," or secret routes, were helped to escape to Canada or some other place of safety in the North. One of the most famous routes of the Underground Railroad was from Cincin-

nati to Detroit; another from Baltimore to New York, and thence to Canada or New England.

358. Uncle Tom's Cabin. *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, a novel written (1852) by Harriet Beecher Stowe, vividly pictured moral, social, and domestic life under slavery. The story at first came out week by week in an anti-slavery newspaper, but it was later published in book form. Within two years over three hundred thousand copies were sold. The book exerted a powerful anti-slavery influence, but it did not picture southern life truthfully.

359. Death of Three Great Men. The nation was soon called upon to lament the death of three distinguished leaders. Calhoun, the great champion of the South, died at Washington, D. C. (March 31, 1850); Clay, one of America's foremost orators and most disinterested patriots, died in the capital (June 28, 1852); and Daniel Webster, the famous leader of the North, and the notable expounder of the Constitution, passed away at Marshfield, Massachusetts (October 24, 1852).

360. Anti-Catholic Attacks—Know-Nothingism. The Nativists and other anti-Catholic elements (1852) joined forces with the fugitive German and Italian Revolutionists (1848-1849), and led by the ex-Carmelite Gavazzi, inaugurated a crusade of unparalleled anti-Catholic hatred and strife. When the Papal Nuncio, Monsignore Bedini, landed in New York (1852), Gavazzi traveled through the country, and everywhere set on foot a movement against him. He made charges which no rational man could believe, and which were soon proved to be false.

As a result of these calumnies, the Nuncio, in his progress through the country, was insulted, abused, burned in effigy, mobbed, and even threatened with assassination. In many places in New England, the anti-Catholic faction, headed by a Boston street preacher, who styled himself the Angel Gabriel, ruthlessly destroyed Catholic churches and expelled peaceful Catholic settlers from their homes.

During this excitement (1852) a network of secret societies sprang up, called the "Order of the Star-Spangled Banner." It started in New York, and because of its extreme secrecy, its members were called Know-Nothings. The order advocated chiefly: that the time of residence required for naturalization be twenty-one years, and that Catholics be placed under political disabilities. The Know-Nothings destroyed many churches, convents, and private houses of Catholics, and shed much Catholic blood. They increased so rapidly that they elected the governors and legislatures of a number of the states. In a few years, however, they became almost extinct, save in Maryland, where they continued to exist for a time.

The methods of the Know-Nothing party were revived in 1894 by the American Protective Association. This was a secret society in the United States, not unlike the Know-Nothings, which became a disturbing factor in most of the northern states during the period of 1891-1897. Its purpose was indicated clearly enough by its open activity in arranging lectures by "ex-priests," distributing anti-Catholic literature, and opposing the election of Catholics to office. Unlike the Know-Nothings, it never constituted a separate political party, but sought to influence existing parties toward selecting candidates friendly to its anti-Catholic views.

361. The First Plenary Council. The First Plenary Council of the Church in the United States, which was assembled in Baltimore by Archbishop Kendrick (1852), was composed of six Archbishops and twenty-six Bishops. It proposed the erection of several new dioceses, urged the importance of Catholic schools, and condemned secret societies, especially the Freemasons.

Questions

1. What were the important provisions of the Compromise of 1850? Who proposed it? What was Webster's stand? Which parts favored the North? Which the South? Which provision was most objectionable to the North?

Why? How did the northern states combat it? Why did *Uncle Tom's Cabin* arouse the country more than all the speeches made in Congress?

2. In which occupation could slaves be more successfully used, cotton-growing or gold mining? Would this affect California's attitude toward slavery?

3. What were some of the important proposals of the First Plenary Council?

Theme Topics

1. A Slave Escapes by the Underground Railway.

2. Imagine that an important letter must be delivered in California in 1851. In a short theme describe the ride of the messenger on the Pony Express.

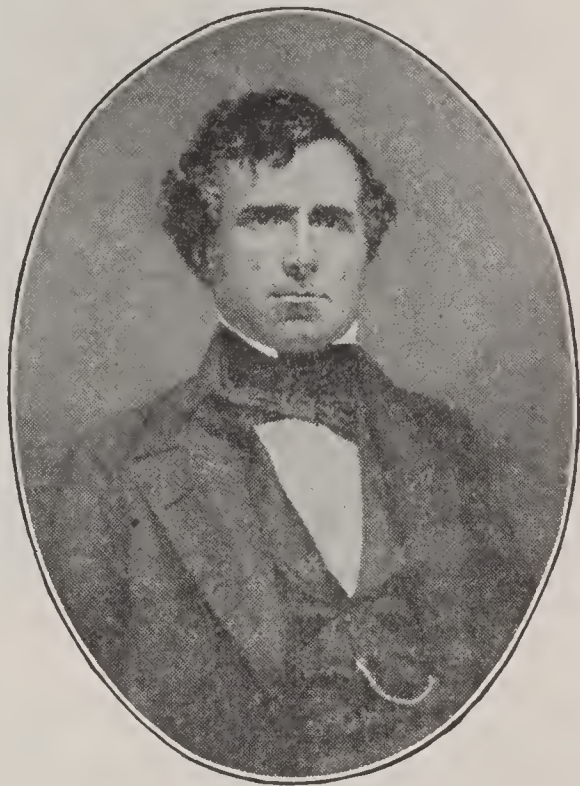
CHAPTER XXVIII

FRANKLIN PIERCE'S ADMINISTRATION

DEMOCRAT—1853-1857

362. Pierce Elected. Franklin Pierce (1804-1869), the fourteenth President, had previously served as Representative and as Senator. He had also been a brigadier-general in the Mexican War. In his inaugural address he promised to do all he could to carry out the provisions of the Compromise of 1850 and to keep peace on the slavery question. Yet, scarcely twelve months of his presidency had elapsed when the country was thrown into a most exciting slavery agitation.

363. The Kansas-Nebraska Bill. Senator Stephen A. Douglas introduced the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, which proposed the formation of the two territories of Kansas and Nebraska on the principle of "squatter sovereignty," that is, the settlers were to decide for themselves whether or not they would have slavery. Douglas's measure repealed the Missouri Compromise, but after violent debates, it became law (1854) by a close vote in both houses and the signature of the President.



FRANKLIN PIERCE

364. The Race to Kansas for Supremacy. No sooner was the Kansas-Nebraska Act passed than a race for political suprem-

acy in Kansas was begun by both the pro-slavery and anti-slavery men. Before the year closed each party had planted several settlements in Kansas. The pro-slavery men settled at Atchison and other points along the Missouri River, while the free-state men settled at Lawrence and other places south of the Kansas River. The excitement became intense. Each party was determined to win in the first election for a territorial legislature (1855). The pro-slavery men carried the election



DISPERSING A KANSAS CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION

by means of fraud and violence, promptly adopted the Constitution of Missouri, which provided for slavery, and added to it laws by which any interference with slavery was to be severely punished. The free-state settlers, refusing to obey a government which had been established through fraud, met at Topeka and drew up a constitution of their own. This constitution forbade slavery.

Thus Kansas had two rival, hostile governments, each demanding recognition by Congress and the President. It was

clear that "squatter sovereignty" could not solve peaceably the slavery question in the territories. The House of Representatives accepted the Topeka, or anti-slavery constitution, and voted to admit Kansas as a free state. The Senate, however, did not concur in this action. The conflict in Kansas developed into virtual civil war, during which the two parties committed so many crimes of violence and bloodshed that the territory became known as "Bleeding Kansas."

365. The Gadsden Purchase. Owing to the inaccuracy of the maps, trouble arose with Mexico in regard to the boundary line. General James Gadsden, our minister to Mexico, at length adjusted matters by negotiating a treaty (1853), by which the United States paid Mexico ten million dollars for the land lying directly south of the Gila River. This territory, which comprises about forty-seven thousand square miles, has since been known as the Gadsden Purchase.

366. Perry's Treaty with Japan. In 1853 Commodore Matthew C. Perry, brother of the hero of Lake Erie, visited Japan, which till then had not admitted foreigners even for the purpose of trade. After a year's waiting, Perry succeeded in making a treaty (1854), by which certain Japanese ports were opened for trade with the United States. As a result of Perry's expedition, Japan, within seven years, made treaties with nearly all the countries of Europe. This was the beginning of the wonderful development which has marked that nation for the past fifty or sixty years.

367. First World's Fair in the United States. For the first time in our history, the nations of the world joined the United States (1853) in a great exposition of products in the Crystal Palace, New York. The Crystal Palace, built exclusively of iron and glass, was visited by thousands from all parts of the world. The exposition tended to show that the United States might soon expect to lead the rest of the world in practical inventions and the manufacture of labor-saving machinery—an expectation that has since proved well-founded.

Questions

1. How did the Kansas-Nebraska Bill repeal the Missouri Compromise? What was the attitude of Congress toward the two rival state governments in Kansas? What followed?
2. What was the Gadsden Purchase?
3. What was the result of Perry's treaty with Japan?
4. When and where in the United States was the first World's Fair held?

Theme Topic

Imagine that you were to attend a World's Fair this year. Write a short theme describing the wonderful things you would expect to see.

CHAPTER XXIX

JAMES BUCHANAN'S ADMINISTRATION

DEMOCRAT—1857-1861

368. Buchanan and Breckinridge Are Elected. At the election of 1856, James Buchanan (1791-1868), the Democratic nominee, was elected as the fifteenth President. John C. Breckinridge of Kentucky was chosen Vice-president.

Buchanan was a native of Pennsylvania. In public life he had served as United States Senator and as minister to Russia and to England. He declared in his inaugural address that the object of his administration would be to destroy sectional strife and settle the slavery question. However, the Dred Scott Decision, rendered by the Supreme Court only two days after his inauguration, widened the alarming breach between the anti-slavery and pro-slavery sections of the Union.

369. The Dred Scott Decision. A slave named Dred Scott had lived for some time with his master, an army surgeon, in the free state of Illinois and in the free territory of Minnesota. On returning to Missouri, Scott sued his owner for his freedom, on the ground that his residence on free soil had made him a



JAMES BUCHANAN

free man. The case was finally tried in the Supreme Court of the United States, which rendered the "Dred Scott Decision." This declared that a slave was not a person, but property, and Congress had no more right to exclude this kind of property from the territories than it had to exclude horses, cows, and other



A LINCOLN-DOUGLAS DEBATE

chattels. Therefore, slave-owners might take their slaves with them into any territory of the Union without forfeiting authority over them.

The Dred Scott Decision created intense excitement throughout the country. The slaveholders of the South had on their

side the Supreme Court. The people of the North denounced the Supreme Court, rejected its decision, and determined to check the spread of slavery in the territories.

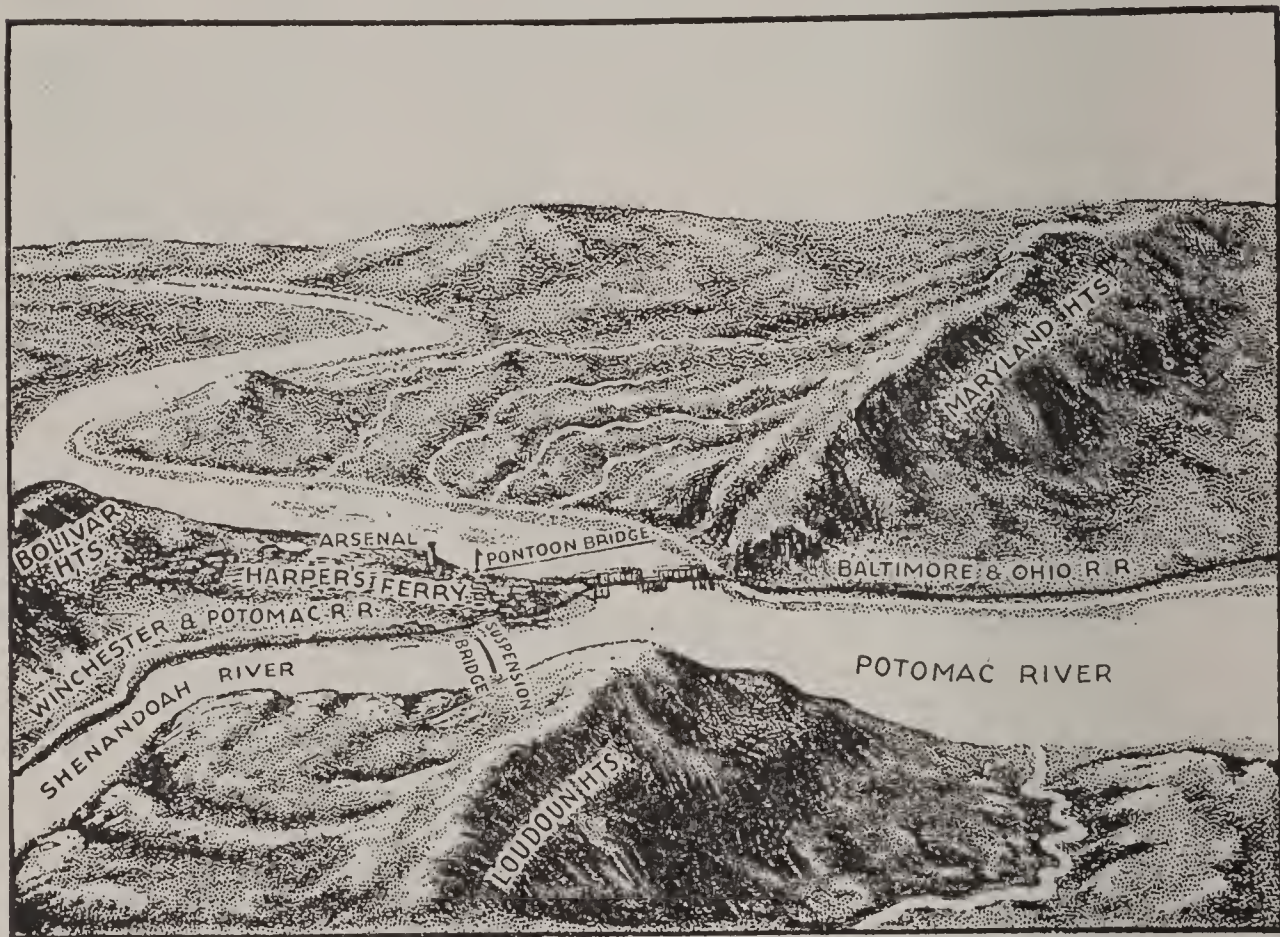
370. The Lincoln-Douglas Debates. The election of a successor to Senator Douglas of Illinois brought to the front Abraham Lincoln, the Republican candidate for the senatorship against Douglas, who was the Democratic choice. Lincoln challenged (1857) Douglas to a series of joint debates on the subjects of squatter sovereignty, the Dred Scott Decision, and the extension of slavery into the territories. Both candidates exercised a powerful influence upon the vast audiences which gathered from far and near to hear the great problems of the day discussed by the ablest speakers of Illinois. Although Douglas was reelected senator, Lincoln's great speeches gave him a national reputation and made him a candidate for the presidency (1860).

371. The Panic of 1857. Shortly after Buchanan's inauguration a great business depression occurred. The discovery of gold in California had increased wealth and stimulated investments in railroads and in manufacturing enterprises. These investments, undertaken on too large a scale, resulted in a panic similar to that which the country had passed through twenty years before. Great suffering continued for two years, but later discoveries of gold in California, silver in Nevada, and oil in Pennsylvania, again revived business and restored prosperity.

Three free states were admitted during Buchanan's administration. Minnesota came in as the thirty-second (1858), Oregon as the thirty-third (1859), and Kansas as the thirty-fourth (1861).

372. John Brown's Raid. John Brown, an Abolition extremist, with about twenty men (1859) suddenly seized the United States arsenal at Harper's Ferry in Virginia, with the avowed purpose of causing an insurrection of the slaves and supplying them with arms from the arsenal. His plan, however, met with complete failure. He was captured, brought to a speedy trial, and hanged. Brown's raid increased the misunderstanding

between the two sections. The South believed that among the northern Republicans there was on foot a general plan to create a slave insurrection, and began to think of secession and independence. The northern people, for the most part, condemned Brown's course, although they were in sympathy with his opposition to slavery.



HARPER'S FERRY AND VICINITY

373. The Campaign of 1860. In the presidential campaign of 1860, the principal issue was again the extension of slavery into the territories. The Republicans nominated Abraham Lincoln of Illinois, on a platform demanding the repudiation of the Dred Scott Decision and the immediate admission of Kansas as a free state. The southern Democrats named John C. Breckinridge of Kentucky, on a platform demanding that Congress should protect slavery in the territories. The northern Democrats chose Stephen A. Douglas, and advocated "squatter

sovereignty." The remnant of old Whigs, along with other conservatives, nominated John Bell, of Tennessee, on a platform of "The Constitution, the Union, and the Enforcement of the Laws." Abraham Lincoln was elected. Hannibal Hamlin was elected Vice-president.

374. South Carolina Secedes. When the election of Lincoln was made known, South Carolina (December, 1860) passed an ordinance of secession and publicly announced the fact to the world. The state based its right of secession on the old principle of states' rights, as expressed by the Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions, the Hartford Convention, and the Nullification Ordinance of South Carolina. Secession and war were not, however, brought about so much by the states' rights question as by anti-slavery agitations, which led to the Kansas-Nebraska troubles, to the Dred Scott Decision, to John Brown's raid, and to the election of Lincoln as President.

375. The Formation of the Southern Confederacy. Other slave states followed the lead of South Carolina, and within six weeks (February, 1861), Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas had seceded from the Union. These seven states, which included the great cotton belt of the South, at once sent delegates to a convention at Montgomery, Alabama, (February, 1861) and established a provisional government, which they styled "The Confederate States of America." Jefferson Davis of Mississippi was chosen President. Later in the year four other states—Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Arkansas—joined the Confederacy. The border states, Maryland, Kentucky, Missouri, and Delaware remained loyal to the Union. The western counties of Virginia declared for the Union, and upon their request for admission, were added to the Union as a state (1863) under the name of West Virginia. The authorities of the seceding states seized nineteen forts and seven arsenals, situated within their borders, together with a vast amount of arms and ammunition belonging to the United States government.

376. The Government and Secession. The government offered no resistance to the secessionists or to their seizure of its property, except a weak attempt to reënforce Major Anderson at Fort Sumter. For this purpose the merchantman, *Star of the West*, was dispatched (January, 1861) to Charleston Harbor. The vessel was fired upon by Charleston gunners at Fort Moultrie, and was forced to return.

Buchanan, still irresolute, adopted no decided plan of action. While he declared that he did not believe in the constitutional rights of secession, he also declared that he did not believe the national government had the right to use coercion. Neither the North nor the South wanted war. The former demanded that the seceded states should come back into the Union. Congress made strenuous efforts to compromise the disputed slavery question; a peace conference was held in Washington and amendments to the Constitution were proposed—but these efforts proved futile.

Questions

1. Review the following topics before discussing the Dred Scott Decision: the provision concerning slavery in the Ordinance of 1787, the Mason and Dixon's Line, the Missouri Compromise, the Compromise of 1850, the Kansas-Nebraska Bill.

2. What did the Supreme Court decide about fugitive slaves? Why was the South satisfied with the decision? What effect would the decision have upon slave holding in free states and territories? In what light did the South regard John Brown's raid?

3. What were the important planks in the political parties of 1860? What was the result of the election? Find on the map the states which seceded.

4. What attitude did the President take toward secession?

5. Be able to list chronologically the presidents from Washington to Lincoln and to give the principal events in each administration.

Theme Topics

1. John Brown's Raid.

2. Abraham Lincoln before 1861.

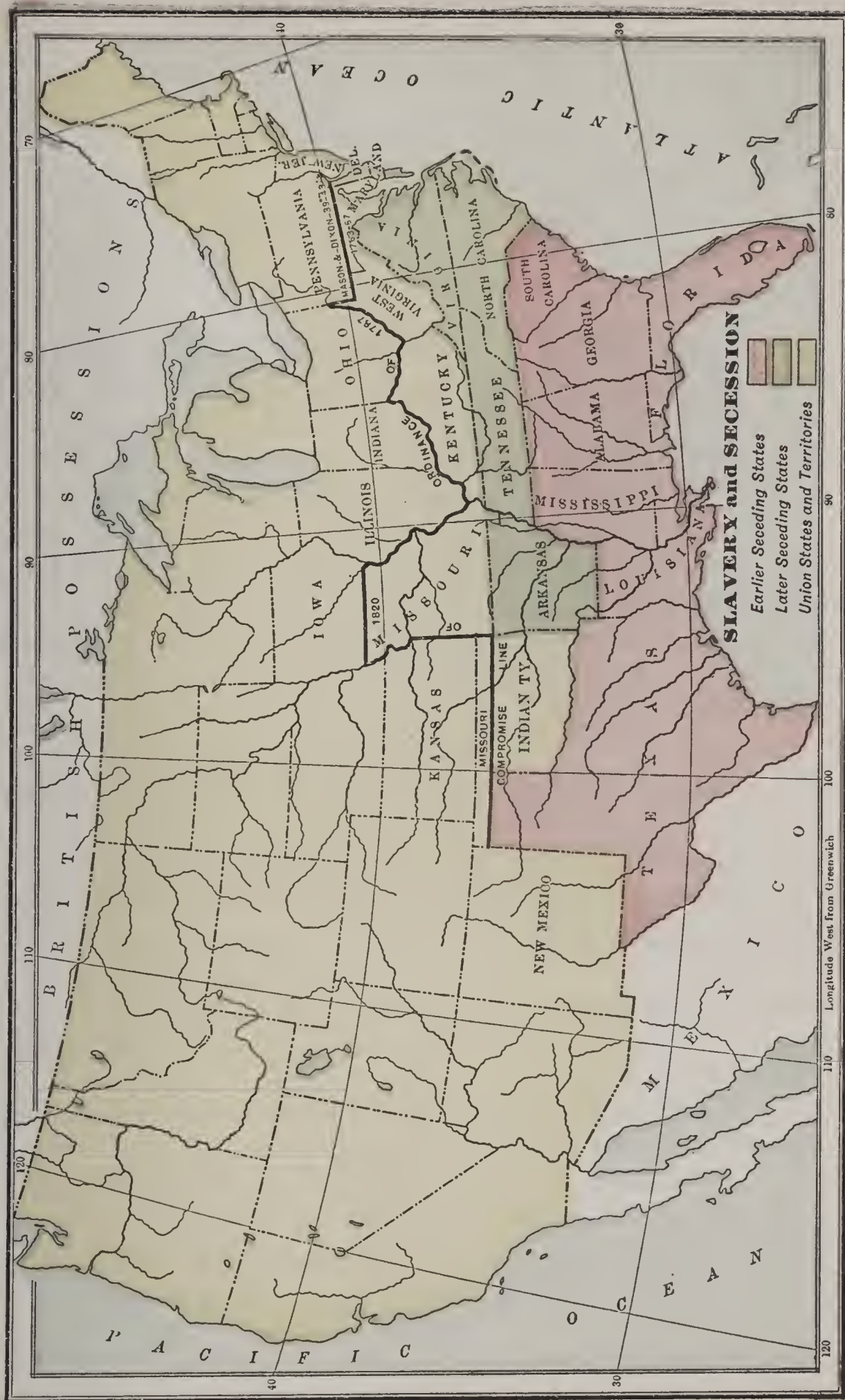
a. Lincoln's birthplace.

b. Lincoln, the boy.

c. Lincoln starts out for himself.

d. Lincoln, the lawyer.

e. Lincoln, the politician.



CHRONOLOGICAL REVIEW

1789—1861

George Washington's Administration (1789-1797).

- 1789. George Washington is inaugurated as the first President (April 30).
Rev. John Carroll is consecrated first Bishop of the United States (November).
- 1791. Vermont is admitted as a free state.
- 1792. Kentucky is admitted as a slave state.
Captain Gray discovers and names the Columbia River.
- 1793. Eli Whitney invents the cotton-gin.
The first Fugitive State Law is enacted.
Rev. Stephen Badin is ordained first priest in the United States.
- 1794. The Whiskey Insurrection occurs in western Pennsylvania.
General Anthony Wayne defeats the Ohio Indians.
- 1795. John Jay concludes a treaty with Great Britain for the surrender of the northwestern forts, payment of American claims, etc.
A treaty is made with Spain for a "Place of deposit."
- 1796. Tennessee is admitted as a slave state.

John Adams's Administration (1797-1801)—Federalist.

- 1797. John Adams is inaugurated as the second President.
- 1798. The Alien and Sedition Laws are enacted.
- 1799. Washington dies at Mount Vernon (December 14).
- 1800. The national capital is removed to Washington.
Spain cedes Louisiana territory to France.

Thomas Jefferson's Administration (1801-1809)—Democratic-Republican.

- 1801. Thomas Jefferson is inaugurated as the third President. The war with Tripoli begins.
- 1803. Ohio is admitted as a free state. Louisiana territory is purchased from France for fifteen million dollars.
- 1804. Hamilton is killed by Burr (July 11).
- 1805. Lewis and Clark make an expedition to the Northwest. A treaty of peace is made with Tripoli.
- 1807. Great Britain publishes the Orders in Council; Napoleon issues his "Decrees" (1806-1807). Congress passes the Embargo Act. Robert Fulton invents the first successful steamboat. The British frigate *Leopard* attacks the American frigate *Chesapeake*.
- 1808. African slave trade is abolished.

James Madison's Administration (1809-1817)—Democratic-Republican.

- 1809. James Madison is inaugurated as the fourth President. The Non-Intercourse Act is passed.
- 1811. General William H. Harrison defeats the Indians under Tecumseh at Tippecanoe. The American ship *President* wins a naval victory over the British *Little Belt*. Astor establishes a trading post at Astoria.
- 1812. Louisiana is admitted as a slave state. War is declared against England (June 18). Hull surrenders Detroit to the British (August 8). The *Essex* captures British sloop *Alert* (August 13). The *Constitution* captures the *Guerriere* (August 19). The United States sloop *Wasp* captures the British brig *Frolic* (October). Unsuccessful attempts are made to invade Canada.

1813. The United States ship *Hornet* captures the British sloop *Peacock*.
The United States frigate *Chesapeake* is captured by the British frigate *Shannon*.
Unsuccessful attempts are again made to invade Canada.
Perry defeats the British on Lake Erie (September 10).
American privateers injure British commerce.
The British are defeated in the Battle of the Thames (October 5).
1814. Jackson defeats the Indians at Horseshoe Bend (March 27).
General Brown defeats the British at Chippewa (July 5).
Brown defeats the British at Lundy's Lane (July 25).
The British capture the capital and burn government buildings (August 24).
The Hartford Convention assembles (December 15).
The treaty of peace is signed at Ghent, Belgium (December 24).
1815. Jackson defends New Orleans (January 8).
Decatur brings the Barbary States to terms.
Archbishop Carroll dies.
1816. Indiana is admitted as a free state.
The first protective tariff is passed.
The Second Bank is chartered.

James Monroe's Administration (1817-1825)—Democratic-Republican.

1817. James Monroe is inaugurated as the fifth President.
Mississippi is admitted as a slave state.
William Cullen Bryant begins his work as poet and editor. (See page 468.)
The Erie Canal, extending from Albany to Buffalo, is begun.
Jackson subdues the Seminoles in Florida.

- 1818. Illinois is admitted as a free state.
- 1819. Florida is purchased from Spain for five million dollars.
Alabama is admitted as a slave state.
The first steamboat, *The Savannah*, crosses the Atlantic.
Washington Irving begins his work as historian, novelist, and descriptive writer. (See page 468.)
- 1820. The Missouri Compromise is passed.
Maine is admitted as a free state.
James Fenimore Cooper begins his work as novelist. (See page 468.)
- 1821. Missouri is admitted as a slave state.
Mexico declares her independence of Spain.
- 1823. President Monroe declares the Monroe Doctrine.
- 1824. Lafayette visits America.
Western Indian Missions are renewed.
A new Protective Tariff Bill is passed.

John Q. Adams's Administration (1825-1829) — National-Republican.

- 1825. John Q. Adams is inaugurated as the sixth President.
The Erie Canal is opened.
- 1826. Nathaniel Hawthorne begins his work as writer of romance. (See page 470.)
- 1827. The first passenger railroad, extending from Baltimore to Ellicott's Mills, is in construction.
Edgar A. Poe begins his work as poet and story-teller. (See page 470.)
- 1828. The Tariff of Abominations is passed by Congress.

Andrew Jackson's Administration (1829-1837)—Democratic.

- 1829. Andrew Jackson is inaugurated as the seventh President.
First Provincial Council is held in Baltimore.
The Spoils System is introduced.
- 1830. Joseph Smith founds the sect of Mormons.

Holmes and Longfellow begin their work as poets and prose writers. (See pages 469 and 470.)

Webster and Hayne hold their famous debate in Congress.

1831. William Lloyd Garrison begins the Abolitionist agitation by the publication of the "Liberator."

1832. Congress passes a new tariff act.
South Carolina passes the Nullification Ordinance.
Jackson is reëlected.

1833. Clay's Tariff Compromise is passed.
Jackson removes the public funds from the National Bank.

1835. George Bancroft begins his work as American historian. (See page 472.)
Ralph Waldo Emerson begins his work as a writer. (See page 469.)

1836. General Houston defeats Santa Anna at San Jacinto.
Texas declares her independence.
Arkansas is admitted as a slave state.

1837. Michigan is admitted as a free state.
The United States acknowledges Texan independence.

Martin Van Buren's Presidency (1837-1841)—Democratic.

Martin Van Buren is inaugurated as the eighth President.

A great business panic takes place.

1838. Catholic missions are established in Oregon.

1840. Congress passes the Sub-treasury Bill.

Harrison-Tyler Administrations (1841-1845)—Whigs.

1841. William H. Harrison is inaugurated as the ninth President.

Father De Smet establishes a mission among the Flathead Indians.

Harrison dies (April 4).

Tyler assumes office as the tenth President.

Congress repeals the Sub-treasury Bill.

1842. Dorr's Rebellion occurs in Rhode Island.

The northeastern boundary of the United States is fixed by the Webster-Ashburton Treaty with England.

James Russell Lowell begins his work as poet and essayist. (See page 470.)

1844. Samuel F. B. Morse erects the first successful electric telegraph line in the world from Baltimore to Washington.

Native American riots occur in Philadelphia.

The Mormons set out for Utah; Smith is killed.

1845. Florida is admitted as a slave state.

Texas is admitted as a slave state.

James K. Polk's Administration (1845-1849)—Democratic.

James K. Polk is inaugurated as the eleventh President.

1846. War with Mexico is declared.

Elias Howe invents the sewing machine. (See p. 454.)

Iowa is admitted as a free state.

Fremont conquers California.

Kearny conquers New Mexico.

Taylor enters Mexico.

By treaty with England the Oregon boundary is fixed at 49°.

Mary Immaculate is chosen the patroness of the Catholic Church in the United States.

1847. Scott takes the City of Mexico.

1848. A treaty of peace is made with Mexico at Guadalupe Hidalgo.

Gold is discovered in California.

Wisconsin is admitted as a free state.

Taylor-Fillmore Administrations (1849-1853)—Whigs.

1849. Zachary Taylor is inaugurated as the twelfth President.

A struggle for the admission of California takes place. Francis Parkman begins his work as American historian. (See page 472.)

1850. President Taylor dies (July 9).

Millard Fillmore assumes office as the thirteenth President.

California is admitted as a free state.

John C. Calhoun dies (March 31).

Personal Liberty Laws are passed.

The Underground Railway is organized.

1852. The First Plenary Council meets at Baltimore.

Henry Clay dies (June 28).

Daniel Webster dies (October 24).

Uncle Tom's Cabin is published.

Franklin Pierce's Administration (1853-1857)—Democratic.

1853. Franklin Pierce is inaugurated as the fourteenth President.

• The Gadsden Purchase is made.

A World's Fair is held at New York.

The Know-Nothing party is organized.

1854. The Kansas-Nebraska Bill is passed.

The Civil War in Kansas begins.

Commodore Matthew C. Perry negotiates a treaty of trade with Japan.

James Buchanan's Administration (1857-1861)—Democratic.

1857. James Buchanan is inaugurated as the fifteenth President.

The Dred Scott Decision is rendered by the Supreme Court.

A great business panic occurs.

1858. The Lincoln-Douglas debates take place.

Minnesota is admitted as a free state.

A civil war in Kansas ends in the framing of the constitution forbidding slavery.

1859. John Brown's Raid excites the country.
Oregon is admitted as a free state.
1860. South Carolina passes an ordinance of secession.
The Democratic party is split into a northern and a southern division.
1861. The Southern Confederacy is formed, and Jefferson Davis is chosen President.
Kansas is admitted as a free state.

PERIOD OF THE CIVIL WAR

CHAPTER XXX

ABRAHAM LINCOLN'S ADMINISTRATION

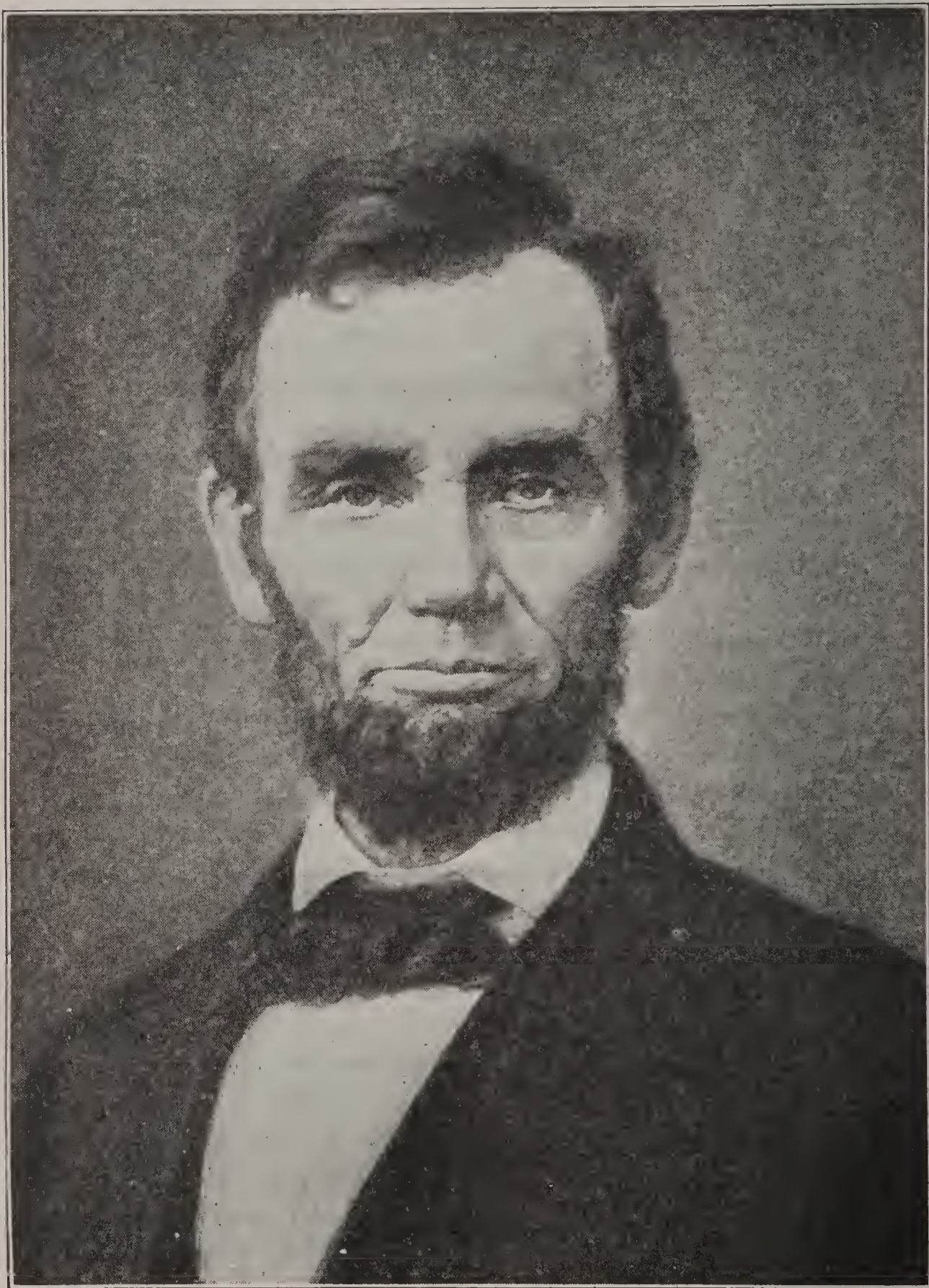
REPUBLICAN—1861-1865

THE WAR TO THE BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG (1861-1863)

377. Lincoln's Inauguration. Rumors of a plot to assassinate Lincoln induced him, on the advice of his friends, to make a quick and secret night journey through Baltimore to the Federal capital, where he was inaugurated on March 4, 1861, without any disturbance. Perhaps never before and never since was a President's inaugural address so eagerly looked forward to as was that of Abraham Lincoln.

In simple words he declared that his aim was to preserve the Union, which should be perpetual and from which no state could lawfully withdraw; that he had no intention of interfering with slavery in the states where it existed; and that he would faithfully execute the laws of the Union in all the states, and hold, occupy, and possess all property and places belonging to the government. His address found great favor in the North, since it made the saving of the Union, instead of the opposition to slavery, the great issue.

378. Comparative Strength and Resources of the Opposing Sections. The twenty-three Union states had a population of about twenty-two million, of which half a million were slaves, while the eleven Confederate states had a population of about nine million, three and one-half million of whom were slaves. The slaves carried no arms, but they could furnish the armies with supplies, and work in the camp.



ABRAHAM LINCOLN

Because of her industrial system, the North had more wealth and a greater number of able business men than the South, where the money and business enterprises were chiefly in the hands of a comparatively small number of planters.

The North controlled the navy, had dockyards, and possessed the financial means for building and repairing warships, with which it could shut up southern ports against aid from abroad; while the South, having put nearly all her energies into the cultivation of rice, cotton, sugar, and tobacco, had few sailors and no navy, and possessed but small means of building ships.

In factories, which supplied the soldiers with everything from blankets to cannon, as also in resources for food supplies, the North greatly surpassed the South, which was almost entirely dependent upon the North and European countries for its necessities of life.

The South had a number of the best-known officers of the regular army, including a group of talented West Point graduates. The southern people, as a rule, showed special aptitude for military pursuits, owing to their outdoor agricultural life, constant use of firearms, and skill in horsemanship. The North, on the other hand, was a land of business men, and was at first far inferior to the South in respect to a population prepared for military service.

While neither side had really expected war, the South had seen its likelihood sooner. She had another great advantage—she could fight on her own soil near the sources of supplies. Her soldiers were thoroughly familiar with every stream, hill, road, and wood.

On the whole, the North and South were at first more evenly matched than is usually supposed. As to courage, ability, self-sacrifice, and loyalty to cause, the two sections were equal. The reason for the failure of the one and the success of the other may be found in the superior number of soldiers, in the greater resources, and in the industrial capacity of the North.

The backwardness of the South in wealth and population must be attributed to slavery. The prosperity of the North was grounded on free and intelligent labor. The farmer and the working man labored with energy because the fruits of their efforts were their own.

The rich man of the South did not need to work, and could devote his time to politics, literature, and social enjoyment. The slaves, laboring under compulsion and having nothing to gain by industry, worked slowly, carelessly, and stupidly. The poor among the whites, who to a great extent had grown up in the belief that work was a disgrace and a sign of slavery, had become a shiftless and unthrifty portion of every community in the South.

379. Causes of the Civil War. Diverging interpretations of the Constitution, different systems of labor in the North and the South, lack of intercourse between the two sections, and the increase of territory, led to the three great remote causes of the Civil War:

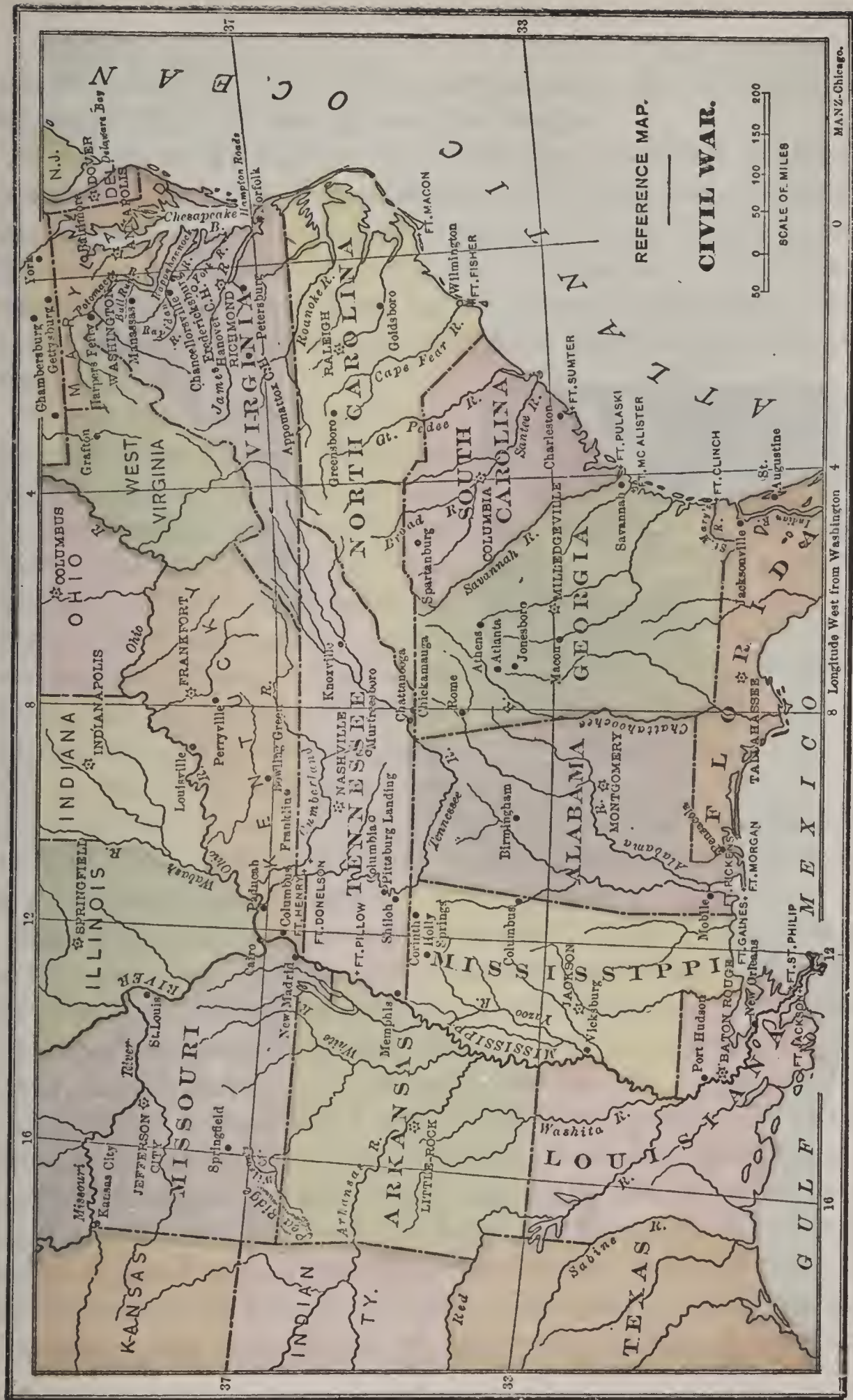
- (a) slavery;
- (b) the doctrine of states' rights;
- (c) the tariff question.

The immediate causes of the Civil War were:

- (a) the election of Lincoln;
- (b) the secession of the southern states;
- (c) the attack on Fort Sumter.

FIRST YEAR OF THE WAR—1861

380. The Capture of Fort Sumter by the South. On the morning following his inauguration, Lincoln received word from Robert Anderson, who was in command of Fort Sumter, that without reënforcements he could not hold the fort much longer. The Confederate forces, commanded by Beauregard, bombarded the garrison. Anderson, after a brave stand of thirty-four hours, made an honorable surrender (April 14, 1861)

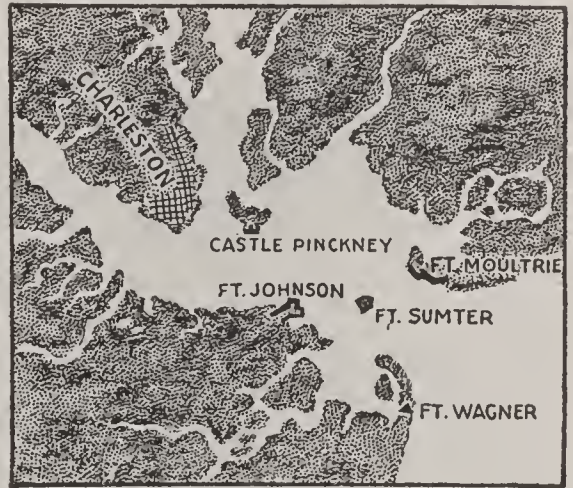


MANZ-Chicago.

and embarked for New York, carrying with him the tattered flag under which he and his men had fought.

The news of the capture of Fort Sumter electrified the whole country and served to consolidate the North and the South against each other. Virginia, Arkansas, North Carolina, and Tennessee now speedily joined the Confederacy. The "Star Spangled Banner" was flung to the breeze everywhere in the North, while the Confederacy displayed its new standard, the Stars and Bars.

On the day following the evacuation of Fort Sumter, President Lincoln called for seventy-five thousand volunteers to serve for three months. Four times that number offered their services. The Sixth Massachusetts volunteer regiment began its march to the capital the same day. While passing through Baltimore (April 19) it was attacked by a mob which killed several soldiers. This was the first bloodshed of the war. The incident occurred on the eighty-sixth anniversary of the skirmish at Lexington.



FORT SUMTER

381. Financial Measures of Congress. After Lincoln's first call for volunteers, Congress met in extra session and authorized the President to call for additional volunteers and to increase the navy and regular army. It also greatly raised the tariff (1861) and levied heavy internal taxes for the support of the war; adopted a Homestead Bill, which offered portions of public domains to heads of families, on condition of their living upon it and cultivating it for five years; and voted the construction of the Union Pacific Railroad, for which purpose money and large tracts of land were granted by the Federal government. At the suggestion of Salmon P. Chase, Secretary of the Treasury, Congress voted that money be borrowed and that the govern-

ment issue paper money or "greenbacks." Gold was soon at a premium and "greenbacks" so decreased in value that in 1864 a dollar note was worth only thirty-five cents in gold.

382. Organization of the Contending Armies. Lincoln, early in May, made a second call for forty-two thousand volunteers to serve for three years, and for forty thousand men for the regular army and navy. Thus the strength of the Union force



WASHINGTON AND VICINITY

was raised to one hundred eighty-three thousand men. This army was placed under the command of General Winfield Scott and distributed on a line of two thousand miles, passing along the Potomac, across northern Virginia, Kentucky, Missouri, and Indian Territory, to New Mexico. Washington was the fortified center.

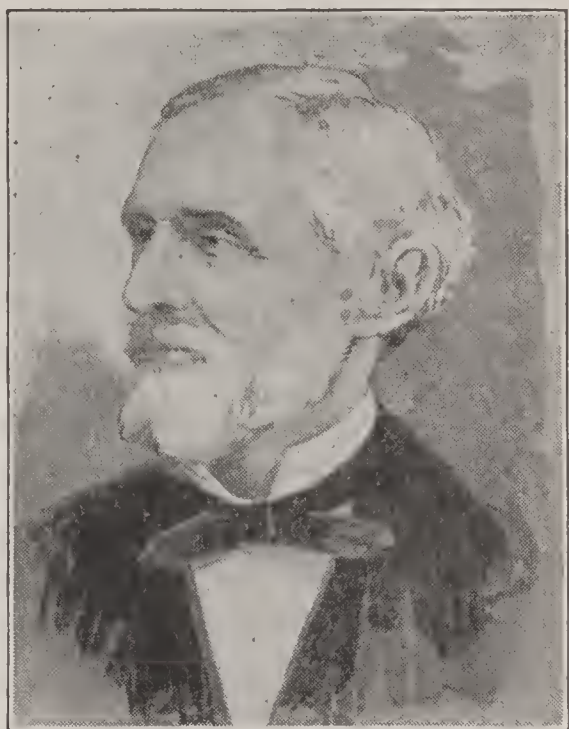
President Davis of the Confederacy also called for volunteers, and his call was obeyed as eagerly as President Lincoln's. The Confederate army, which numbered about one hundred fifty thousand, was under the direction of General Beauregard.

With Richmond as its fortified center it held the country south of the Potomac, together with all the strong fortifications along the Mississippi and the Mexican border.

Each army had the primary object of protecting its own capital. Hence each section immediately sought to make its capital secure. The Union army in addition had the necessary object of capturing Richmond.

383. Counteracting Proclamations. To counteract Lincoln's call for volunteers, Davis issued (April 17) a proclamation offering to all ship-owners who would prey upon northern commerce letters of marque and reprisal, which were commissions for privateering.

President Lincoln responded (April 19) by a proclamation declaring the ports of the Confederacy to be in a state of blockade. Union vessels were stationed outside the harbor of all southern ports to prevent foreign commerce. This proclamation and act constituted a declaration of war.



JEFFERSON DAVIS

The blockade of the ports in the South was rendered so complete within the course of a year that, with the exception of an occasional "blockade-runner," no vessel could enter or leave a southern port. The main source of income to the South—the sale of cotton—being thus cut off, the procuring of ammunition and arms was rendered very difficult. Great masses of cotton, piled up along the seacoast, sold for four cents a pound, although the manufacturers in England would have paid two dollars fifty cents per pound for it. A ton of salt, which could

be purchased for seven dollars in the West Indies, sold for fifteen hundred dollars in Richmond.

The South, however, was able to obtain blockade-runners which were constructed chiefly in England. These vessels, of light draught, could easily move through channels too shallow for their pursuers. To make them less conspicuous, they were painted a dull gray. With these vessels the southerners could, under cover of night, steal in and out of their ports, carrying away cotton and bringing back military stores and other supplies.

384. Foreign Attitude. The Union and the Confederacy each counted on sympathy from Europe. The Union founded her hopes on the fact that England, having led the way in abolishing slavery, would now support her cause. She was disappointed, however, for England and France recognized the Confederacy as a belligerent power, entitled to all the rights of war, though they did not acknowledge her as a nation. The Confederacy from the first hoped and expected foreign recognition and assistance. Southerners, knowing that there were hundreds of factories in England and France which depended upon cotton from the South, believed that, rather than suffer injury to their cotton industry, these nations would recognize the independence of the Confederacy, and lend money to it. But English mechanics and factory hands were willing to suffer rather than to aid slavery. The relations of the Union with Germany and Russia during the war were more friendly; both nations displayed sympathy with her cause.

385. The Battle of Bull Run. When, early in July, General George B. McClellan had driven the Confederate forces out of West Virginia, the people of the North began to demand that the army move forward and capture Richmond. Influenced by public opinion, General Scott ordered an advance to be made under General McDowell. McDowell, with about thirty thousand men, marched from Washington toward Richmond. He met the Confederate forces, twenty thousand strong, under

General Beauregard, at the village of Manassas Junction, near a small branch of the Potomac in Virginia, known as Bull Run. At first, success favored the Union troops; in the afternoon, however, the Union army, composed chiefly of raw recruits, was thrown into a panic and fled in great disorder toward Washington. The Confederate army had suffered too severely to follow up its advantage. While the Union troops were fiercely charging, the Confederate brigade under General Thomas J. Jackson was still firmly holding its ground. Seeing this, the Confederate general, Bee, rallying his men, cried, "Look at Jackson's brigade; they stand like a stone wall!" Thus originated the title "Stone-wall" Jackson, by which the brave general was ever after known.



BULL RUN AND MANASSAS

Many persons in the South, overjoyed at the success of the battle, thought that the war was practically decided. But the North, though greatly humbled, was more benefited by her failure than the South by her success. The North learned two lessons: that the war was certain to last longer than three months, and that an undisciplined army is scarcely better than a mob.

General McClellan was now called from West Virginia to take command of the Union army. During nine months of drill and discipline he changed the raw volunteers into the magnificent Army of the Potomac, about one hundred fifty thousand strong. The Confederates also were strengthening their lines and drilling their men.

386. The Trent Affair. In the autumn of 1861, President Davis sent two commissioners, Mason and Slidell, to Europe to urge the Confederate cause. Running the blockade at

Charleston, they embarked at Havana on the English steamer *Trent*. Captain Wilkes, of the United States sloop of war *San Jacinto*, overhauled the *Trent* and took from it by force the two commissioners. England, considering this action an insult to her flag, made a sharp demand for the release of the prisoners and sent troops to Canada. The United States government immediately disavowed the act of Captain Wilkes and placed the commissioners on a British ship, in which they were conveyed to their destination. Thus war with England was averted.

It was just before the "Trent affair" that President Lincoln sent Archbishop Hughes and Thurlow Weed to France and England to help the cause of the Union and to avert the danger of foreign war. The spirit in which the great Archbishop performed his mission is well expressed in his own words: "I made known to the President that if I should come to Europe it would not be as a partisan of the North more than of the South; that I should represent the interests of the South as well as the North; in short, the interests of the United States, just the same as if they had never been distracted by the present Civil War."

SECOND YEAR OF THE WAR—1862

387. Lincoln's Strategic Plans. Lincoln at the very beginning of the war stated that four things were essential to success: (1) the defense of Washington and the capture of Richmond; (2) the prevention of the border states from seceding; (3) the opening of the Mississippi River; and (4) an effective blockade of the southern ports for the purpose of preventing European supplies from reaching the South.

During the first year of the war, Washington was well fortified, the neutral border states were prevented from seceding, and the southern ports were fairly well blockaded. Consequently there remained to be accomplished the opening of the Mississippi River, the more thorough blockade of the southern ports, and the capture of Richmond.

THE CAMPAIGN IN THE WEST

388. Confederate Line of Defense. The Confederate line of defense extended from Columbus, on the Mississippi, through Kentucky to Cumberland Gap, in the Alleghany Mountains. General Albert Sydney Johnston, commander of all the Confederate forces in the West, with about fifteen thousand men, had his headquarters at Bowling Green; General Polk, with about one hundred twenty-one thousand men, held Columbus and the surrounding points; while Brigadier General Zollicoffer, with about six thousand men, held Cumberland Gap. To break this line was the object of the Federal forces that were under the command of General Halleck at St. Louis and General Buell at Louisville. In a short time these two generals mustered a well-armed and thoroughly equipped army of about one hundred thousand men. In addition to these land forces, the Federals had a good river fleet.

389. Federal Victory at Mill Springs—Capture of Forts Henry and Donelson. General Thomas made the first break in the Confederate lines. He attacked and totally defeated Zollicoffer at Mill Springs, where he secured prisoners, guns, and valuable military stores. The result of this battle was the capture of Cumberland Gap, which opened the way to eastern Tennessee.

To control the Tennessee and Cumberland Rivers, the Confederates had erected Forts Henry and Donelson. Commodore Foote with a flotilla of ironclad gunboats captured (February) Fort Henry, whereupon the Confederates escaped to Fort Donelson on the Cumberland. A week later (the flotilla having made its way from the Tennessee into the Cumberland) Grant, aided by Foote's gunboats, made an attack upon Fort Donelson, which General Buckner was forced to surrender with its garrison of about fifteen thousand men. To the Confederates' inquiry as to terms of surrender, Grant wrote his famous reply: "No terms except unconditional and immediate surrender can be accepted. I propose to move immediately upon your works."

By this victory the Federals gained large quantities of guns and military stores.

The capture of Fort Donelson was one of the turning points of the war. It was the first great Union victory, and the North was jubilant. The Confederates had been obliged to abandon Bowling Green, Columbus, and Nashville. Thus Kentucky and

most of Tennessee had been yielded to the Federals. Chattanooga, the key to east Tennessee, was now open to capture. The victory gave the Unionists an advance of one hundred miles into the Confederate lines. "Unconditional Surrender" Grant was the hero of the hour.

390. Union Victory at Shiloh. After the capture of Fort Donelson, the Confederates, under Johnston, Beauregard, and Bragg, made Corinth their center for further military action. Grant, with the Army of the Tennessee, and Buell, with the Army of the Cumberland, occupied Nashville. Grant proceeded to Pittsburg Landing, near Shi-

loh, in southwestern Tennessee, to which place Buell was hastening from Nashville. The two armies planned to advance upon the Confederates at Corinth. Johnston, hoping to crush Grant before Buell could arrive, made a hasty march from Corinth and met the Union army at Shiloh. On the first day the Union forces were defeated and driven steadily back toward the river. On the night following, however, when Buell arrived, the Unionists won



a great victory. The Confederates were forced from the field with the loss of their noble commander, Albert Sydney Johnston, and twenty-five thousand men. This was one of the bloodiest battles of the war. General Beauregard now assumed command of the Confederate forces, which had retreated to Corinth.

391. Opening of the Mississippi. After aiding in the capture of Donelson, Foote with his gunboats attacked Island No. 10 in the Mississippi River. He captured the place on the same day that Grant and Buell won the famous battle of Shiloh. Fort Pillow was next taken (June); then the Union gunboats, advancing down the Mississippi, captured Memphis. The Mississippi River was now opened to Vicksburg, and the Federal line of defense extended from Memphis to Chattanooga.

392. The Battles of Perryville and Murfreesboro. Bragg, who succeeded Beauregard as Confederate commander in the West, determined to recover Tennessee and Kentucky. He started northward toward Louisville, but Buell reached the city before he did, and saved it. An indecisive battle was fought at Perryville (October) and the Confederates withdrew to Chattanooga. They next fortified Murfreesboro, where Rosecrans, who had superseded Buell, attacked and defeated Bragg in one of the hardest fought battles of the war. The battle, however, was not decisive, for, though the Confederates were obliged to withdraw, the Federals were too much crippled to pursue. The control of central Tennessee was now in the hands of the Unionists.

NAVAL OPERATIONS ALONG THE COAST

393. Battles Between the Ironclads. While the army in the West was busy carrying out its work in the plan of the war, the Federal blockade of the southern ports was suddenly endangered. The *Virginia*, a Confederate ironclad gunboat, which had formerly been the *Merrimac*, under the command of Commodore Franklin Buchanan, entered (March) Hampton Roads. Here it met a Union fleet, which, with the land batteries, rained shot and shell against the ironclad monster without effect. The

strange craft thrust its prow into the *Cumberland* and sank it. It next drove the other vessels ashore and set several of them on fire. Had not darkness come on, it would have destroyed the whole fleet. Satisfied with the results of the day, it withdrew to Norfolk, intending to continue its work of destruction the next day. As it steamed proudly out from Norfolk the following morning (March 9), the Confederate ironclad was, to its intense



THE MONITOR AND THE MERRIMAC

surprise, confronted by the Union ironclad *Monitor*, in command of Lieutenant John Worden. By one of the strangest and most dramatic coincidences in our history, this new Union ironclad had arrived during the night from New York. At once the battle began and continued for four hours with the utmost desperation. The little *Monitor* darted at the great Confederate warrior and, close against each other, the two crafts ex-

changed their heaviest shots. The *Merrimac*, trying to run down the *Monitor*, could only grate over its iron deck, while the *Monitor* glided out unharmed. Finally the pilot-house of the *Monitor* was struck by a shell and its commander blinded. It then retired. The *Merrimac* steamed back to Norfolk, and the fight was ended as a draw.

On the outcome of this battle, the first ever fought between ironclad ships, hinged the fate of the war. Had the *Merrimac* succeeded:

(a) the blockade would soon have been destroyed, the cotton markets opened, and war supplies from England received.

In short, secession might have triumphed.

(b) the Peninsular Campaign, which we shall presently study, would have been prevented.

The *Monitor*, scarcely one-fourth as large as the *Merrimac*, was a new Union ironclad built by John Ericsson in the Brooklyn navy yard. It was a hull with a deck a few inches above water, in the center of which was a curious revolving iron turret containing two guns. It was nicknamed "Yankee cheese box on a plank," but it was then one of the most powerful warships in the world. Strangely enough, neither vessel did much further service. The *Merrimac* was blown up by the Confederates when they abandoned Norfolk during McClellan's Peninsular Campaign in May, 1862, and the *Monitor* sank in a storm at sea near Cape Hatteras in December of the same year.

394. Capture of New Orleans. The Mississippi had been opened from the north as far south as Vicksburg; but with New Orleans in possession of the Confederates, the Union could not possibly secure either a complete blockade or the control of the rest of the river. Hence an expedition of naval and land forces (about fifteen thousand), commanded by Commodore David Farragut and General Benjamin Butler, sailed from Hampton Roads and landed on Ship Island, in the mouth of the Mississippi. The approach to New Orleans from the south was guarded by the two strongly fortified forts, Jack-

son and St. Philip, located some distance below the city. Below the forts the river was obstructed by a raft of vessels and logs, connected by chains, while above them was a fleet of thirteen Confederate gunboats and an ironclad floating battery. At a favorable opportunity, Farragut, amid the bombardment of the forts, broke the chains which connected the raft, and with his flotilla of forty vessels made a perilous run past the forts, destroyed the Confederate gunboats, and forced New Orleans to surrender (April). General Butler took command of the city as military governor. By the capture of New Orleans the blockade was rendered more thorough, and the Mississippi River, except for the stretch from Port Hudson to Vicksburg, was left in the control of the Union forces.

WAR IN THE EAST—PENINSULAR CAMPAIGN

395. Position of the Armies—The Project of Capturing Richmond. Returning to the war in the East, we find that after the Federal defeat at Bull Run, McClellan, who had superseded McDowell, spent the winter (1861-1862) organizing and disciplining his forces—the Army of the Potomac—which numbered about two hundred thousand. The Confederate army in the East, commanded by Joseph E. Johnston, numbered less than one hundred thousand.

The capture of Richmond was the object of the North. The city could be approached in three ways: by direct land route, through the Shenandoah Valley, and by Chesapeake Bay and the peninsula between the James and York Rivers. The people of the North, as well as the authorities at Washington, favored the direct land route to Richmond. McClellan, however, preferred the old Revolutionary fighting field, and Lincoln reluctantly yielded to him. McClellan's plan necessitated a division of the Union forces in the East into four separate armies under independent commanders: one under McClellan in the peninsula, another under McDowell for the protection of Washington,

a third under Banks in the Shenandoah Valley, and a fourth under Fremont in the passes leading to West Virginia.

396. McClellan Fights His Way to the Vicinity of Richmond. McClellan transported (April) his army of ninety thousand by water to Fortress Monroe. Moving up the peninsula between the York and James Rivers, he besieged Yorktown, but the Confederates, after delaying him for a month, slipped away unharmed. He hurried after the retreating Confederates and defeated them at

Williamsburg. He next advanced to the Chickahominy River, where a part of his army crossed to Fair Oaks, or Seven Pines, and was attacked by the Confederates under Johnston. After two days of desperate



fighting, the Confederates, with Johnston wounded, retired. Robert E. Lee now succeeded Johnston in command of the southern troops.

397. Jackson's and Stuart's Raids. Instead of attacking Richmond at once, McClellan waited for McDowell to reënforce him at White House Landing. But Stonewall Jackson made a dashing raid through the Shenandoah Valley, the "backdoor to Washington," defeated Banks and Fremont, cleared the valley of Federal troops, and rushed his troops to assist Lee against McClellan. General Stuart, with his cavalry, had encircled McClellan's army, torn up railroads, and burned immense quantities of supplies.

398. The Seven Days' Battles. McClellan determined to change his base of operations from the York to the James River, but was attacked on the way by the Confederates in a series of battles known as the "Seven Days' Battles," the last

of which, Malvern Hill, resulted in Lee's repulse. McClellan withdrew his army to Harrison's Landing on the James River. The peninsular campaign had ended in failure, for Richmond had not been taken. In the North keen discouragement was felt over this failure.

399. New Measures Passed by Congress. Congress during this period passed a number of measures, the most important of which were the construction of a railroad to the Pacific Ocean, the establishment of a Department of Agriculture, and the "Morrill Act," which gave to each state as many times thirty thousand acres of land as it had members in Congress, for the support of agricultural colleges and the teaching of mechanical arts. This "Morrill Act" was of great educational importance, since it was the origin of most of the agricultural colleges and many of the state universities of the United States.

LEE'S INVASION OF THE NORTH

400. Federal Defeats at Cedar Mountain, Bull Run, and Harper's Ferry—Victory at Antietam. General Halleck was made commander-in-chief of the Union armies, and McClellan was ordered to join General John Pope, who was stationed at Cedar Mountain. Before McClellan could arrive, the Confederates under Lee and Jackson had defeated Pope's forces in the second battle of Bull Run.

After his victory, Lee crossed the Potomac into Maryland and captured Harper's Ferry. McClellan followed and met him at Antietam in the most desperate one-day battle of the war. Lee was obliged to retreat across the Potomac into Virginia, his first invasion of the North having thus failed. McClellan was blamed by the country for not pursuing Lee across the Potomac. Consequently, Lincoln transferred the command of the Army of the Potomac to General Burnside.

401. Federal Defeat at Fredericksburg. Burnside proved as rash as McClellan had been over-cautious. He crossed the Rappahannock (December) and, throwing his army against

Lee, who occupied a strongly fortified position at Fredericksburg, was defeated with an immense loss. He was superseded in command by General Hooker, known as "Fighting Joe."

402. Hostile Attitude of Great Britain. Lincoln was especially depressed because of the result of the war in the East. He looked forward to a victory which would change the attitude of Great Britain. The unfriendly disposition to the Union Government evinced by this nation at the beginning of the war was increased by the "Trent Affair," and now, after McClellan's reverses, it became still more apparent. Shipyards in Great Britain built and equipped a number of swift sailing steamships for Confederate service. With these vessels, most noted among which were the *Alabama*, *Shenandoah*, *Florida*, *Tallahassee*, and *Georgia*, the Confederate authorities succeeded in inflicting a great deal of damage on the Union shipping; in fact, they very nearly cleared the ocean of American commerce.

403. Emancipation. According to the President and Congress, the object of the war was to save the Union. But Lincoln had been thinking seriously of emancipation. William H. Seward, Secretary of State, advised him to wait for a Union victory. Antietam served the purpose, and on September 22, Lincoln issued a proclamation which gave formal notice that unless the Confederates yielded allegiance to the Union within one hundred days thereafter, he would declare the slaves within their limits free. The seceded states did not heed this proclamation. Accordingly, on the first of January, 1863, Lincoln issued a formal proclamation by which the slaves of the Confederate states were freed. It at once became a world-known fact that victory for the Federal arms now meant two things—the union of the states and the liberty of the slaves.

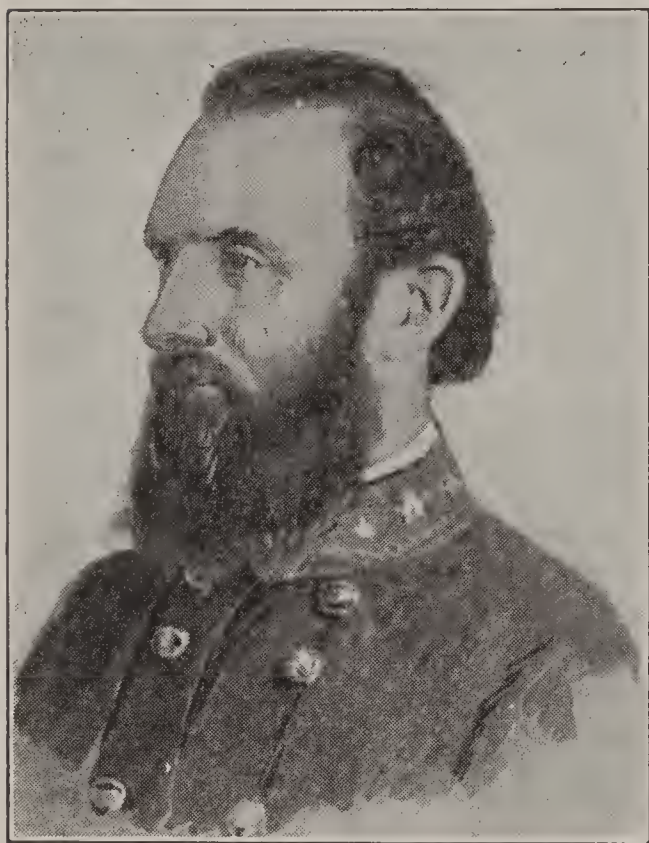
Lincoln thought that the Emancipation Proclamation would weaken the South; would prevent foreign recognition of its independence; and would bring about the final overthrow of slavery. His action was, of course, without constitutional warrant. It was entirely a war measure. Missouri (1863) and

Maryland (1864) freed their own slaves, but the abolition of slavery throughout the country could be accomplished only by an amendment to the Constitution.

THIRD YEAR OF THE WAR—1863

WAR IN THE EAST—LEE'S SECOND INVASION OF THE NORTH

404. Plan — Federal Defeat at Chancellorsville. General Hooker spent some months in reorganizing and recruiting his forces. In May he led his army to Chancellorsville, where he was

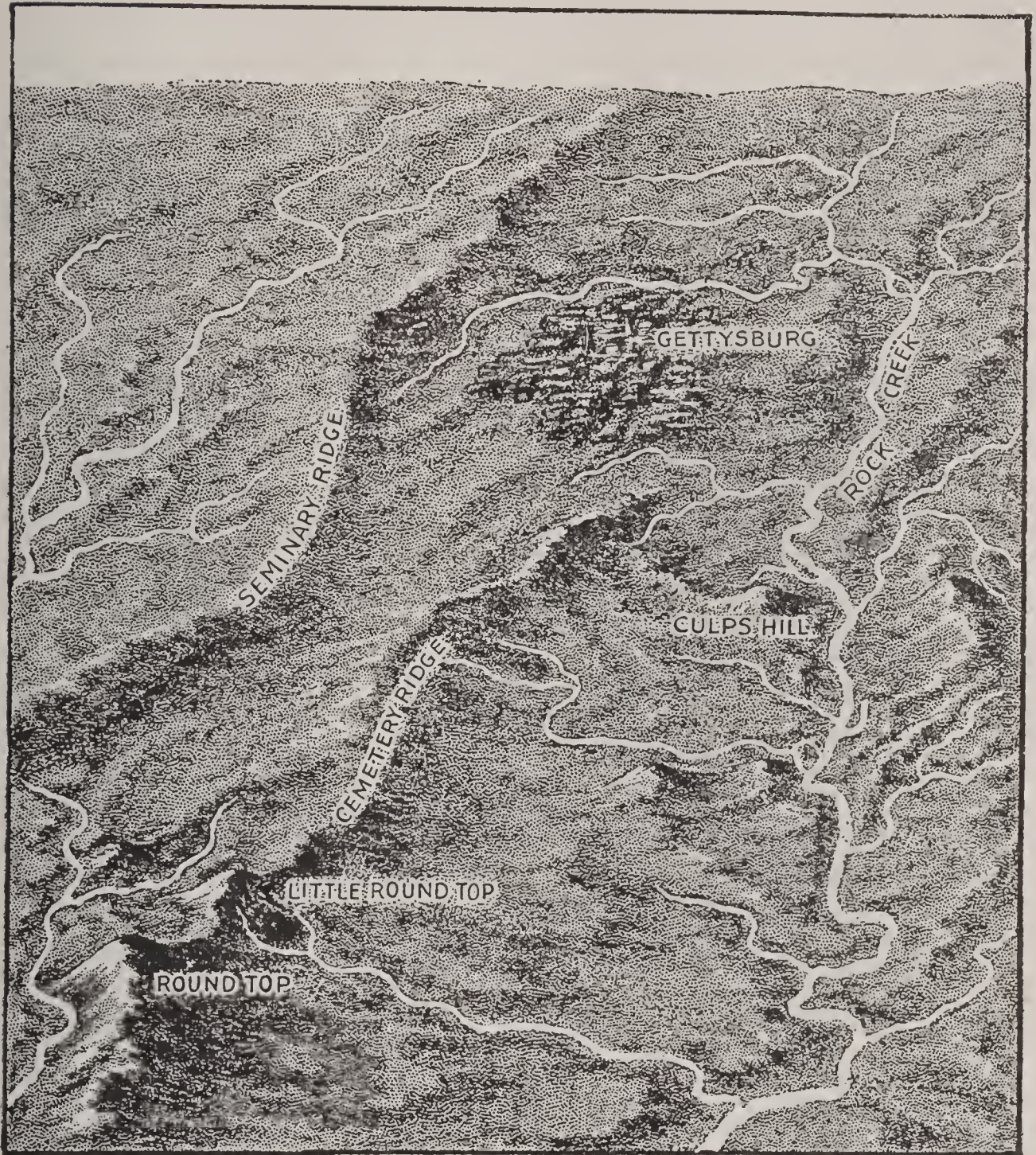


STONEWALL JACKSON

badly defeated by Lee. In this battle the South lost one of her ablest leaders. Stonewall Jackson, while riding back to camp in the evening, was mortally wounded by an accidental shot from one of his own men. Jackson ranks among the world's greatest military commanders.

405. The Great Battle of Gettysburg, the Turning Point of the War. Encouraged by his success, Lee set out to invade the North for a second time. He passed around Hooker's army, which was falling back to protect Washington, and proceeded

through Maryland, into Pennsylvania. The North was alarmed. The Army of the Potomac, led by General George E. Meade, who had superseded Hooker, pursued Lee, hoping to head him off from Harrisburg and Philadelphia. The two armies met on the famous field of Gettysburg, Pennsylvania, and after a battle of three days (July 1 to 3), the Confederate troops were defeated. They retreated, followed by the Union troops across Maryland



GETTYSBURG AND VICINITY

into Virginia, where the two armies confronted each other on the Rapidan (a branch of the Rappahannock). Here they went into winter quarters.

The battle of Gettysburg may be regarded as the turning point of the war. It put an end to Confederate invasion of

the North and marked the beginning of the decline of the South. The day after Lee had been defeated by Meade at Gettysburg, Pemberton surrendered Vicksburg to Grant.

The battlefield of Gettysburg was made a national cemetery. It was dedicated on November 19, 1863, when President Lincoln delivered an address which is now regarded as a classic. (Read Lincoln's "Gettysburg Address.")

Questions

1. What is secession? What is meant by Civil War? What advantages did the North have? The South?
2. What were the results of the Confederate attack on Fort Sumter?
3. Describe the steps taken by each side to organize an army. Why did the North blockade the southern ports? What attitude did foreign nations take toward the struggle?
4. Locate Manassas Junction in relation to Richmond, the Confederate capital. What did the North learn from the battle of Bull Run?
5. What was the Trent Affair?
6. Where were the neutral border states? Why did the North make a great effort to keep these within the Union? (Notice how they stood between the free states and the seceded states.)
7. Study the map and tell why the capture of Forts Henry and Donelson and of Shiloh was important. Why was it very important to the North to capture New Orleans? What were the results of the battle between the *Merrimac* and the *Monitor*? Show on the map where the battle took place.
8. Trace on the map the three directions from which Richmond might have been attacked by the North. Which was McClellan's choice? What did he accomplish?
9. What was the "Morrill Act"?
10. What was the effect of the Union defeats of 1862 on Great Britain's attitude?
11. Why did Lincoln emancipate the slaves?
12. Why is the battle of Gettysburg regarded as one of the decisive battles of history? Locate Gettysburg.

Theme Topics

1. Describe the battle of the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac*. (See picture on page 304.)
2. The Death of Stonewall Jackson.

CHAPTER XXXI

FROM THE BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG TO LEE'S SURRENDER AT APPOMATTOX—1863-1865

THE WAR IN THE WEST

406. The Federals Capture Vicksburg. The year 1863 opened with Vicksburg, the stronghold on the Mississippi, and Chattanooga, the Confederate gateway of the West, as the objective points of the Union forces in the West. Grant had tried plan after plan for attacking Vicksburg, but without success. Finally Admiral Porter with his gunboats ran supplies down the river past the batteries in a terrific fire. Grant with his army marched from Holly Springs to Memphis, crossed the river and proceeded down the western bank to Grand Gulf. Crossing back to the east side, he defeated the Confederates under Pemberton, driving them inside the defenses of Vicksburg. After a long siege, Pemberton surrendered with 32,000 men (July 4). Four days later, Port Hudson and the remaining Confederate posts on the river yielded to General Banks. The Mississippi, from the source to the mouth, was now in control of the Federal government, or, as President Lincoln expressed it, "The Father of Waters rolled unvexed to the sea."

407. The Confederates Abandon Chattanooga—They Defeat the Federals at Chickamauga. After the battle of Mur-



VICKSBURG CAMPAIGN

freesboro, Bragg retreated before Rosecrans into the important stronghold of Chattanooga. No further decisive military operations took place in Tennessee or Georgia for about six months.



CHICKAMAUGA AND LOOKOUT MOUNTAIN

Finally Rosecrans moved southward around Bragg's army, whereupon the Confederate general abandoned Chattanooga and retreated into Georgia toward Atlanta.

Rosecrans pursued Bragg, who, having received reënforcements from Lee, unexpectedly faced about and attacked (September) the Federals at Chickamauga in one of the most desperate battles of the war. As a result of the battle, the Federal troops fell back to Chattanooga, where they were besieged by General Bragg. About seventeen thousand lives were lost on each side. General Thomas now superseded Rosecrans. During this battle, Thomas greatly distinguished himself. Holding his ground against the persistent assaults of the enemy, he gave the Union army time to retreat in fair condition to Chattanooga. His skill and gallantry that day won for him the title, "The Rock of Chickamauga."

408. Confederate Defeat at Chattanooga. Grant, who had been put at the head of all the armies west of the Alleghanies, assumed command at Chattanooga, where he summoned troops from the East and the West. Hooker came from the Army of the Potomac, Sherman from the Army of the Tennessee, while Thomas led the Army of the Cumberland.

Sherman and Thomas attacked and captured Missionary Ridge, while General Hooker stormed Lookout Mountain in the "battle above the clouds." Communications were opened with Chattanooga, and Bragg's forces retreated southward (November) to Dalton, Georgia, where Bragg turned over his command to General Johnston.

Grant, whose successes at Vicksburg and Chattanooga won for him the rank of lieutenant-general, now succeeded Halleck as general-in-chief of all the Union armies.

409. Confederate Blockade-Runners. The Confederate blockade-runners did enormous damage to northern commerce during this year. The *Florida*, built and equipped in an English shipyard, ran the blockade at Mobile, and, entering upon its career of destruction, captured some twenty vessels. It was finally seized in the harbor of Bahia, Brazil. Three of her prizes, however, had been fitted out as cruisers, which were manned from her officers and crew.

POLITICAL AFFAIRS

410. The Draft Act. Because of the rapid decrease in the number of Union volunteers, Congress resorted to a draft act (March 3, 1863), to fill up the Union ranks. All able-bodied men between the ages of twenty and forty-five (later eighteen and forty-five) were enrolled by the Federal officers. From this enrollment men were chosen by lot. The drafting of these men into the army aroused much ill-feeling in the North, especially among the laboring classes and those opposed to the war. In several places the draft officials were vigorously resisted. In New York (July) a "draft riot," by a great mob, controlled the city for several days, burning houses and killing negroes. The Federal troops succeeded in dispersing the mob, but only after more than a thousand rioters had been killed.

In the South, too, a draft act was issued, and here also it met with opposition. It included all able-bodied men between the ages of eighteen and forty-five (later seventeen and fifty). Consequently, all the industries of the Confederacy were left in the hands of men over fifty and of women and children. The draft act resulted in indescribable suffering.

411. Legal Tender and Banking Acts. Congress passed (1862) the Legal Tender Act, which authorized the issue of small promissory notes, similar to bank notes; these, from their color, were called greenbacks. They were made legal tender, that is, any debtor could offer them instead of gold in discharge of a debt and the creditor was forced to accept them.

The value of the greenbacks fluctuated according to the fortunes of the war—a Federal victory raising their value, a Confederate success decreasing it. Thus the greenback dollar, which was equivalent to ninety-eight cents in 1862, fell to about seventy-five cents in 1863, and by July, 1864, it was worth scarcely more than thirty-five cents. More than five hundred million dollars in greenbacks were issued and put into circulation during the Civil War. A part of these greenbacks, or notes, are

still in circulation, although they have, of course, been many times renewed.

Congress during this year passed a National Bank Act by which a company of five or more persons with a certain amount of capital could establish a bank. The banking company, which was obliged to deposit government bonds as security in the United States treasury, was permitted to issue notes to the extent of ninety per cent of its bonds. The government thus held the bonds as security for the notes in case of the bank's failure. This National Bank Act attained three objects:

- (a) it secured a market for national bonds;
- (b) it provided the country with a uniform and safe currency;
- (c) it established the confidence of the people in the government.

Salmon P. Chase, Secretary of the Treasury, who was the author of the banking and legal tender acts, subsequently became known as the "Father of Greenbacks."

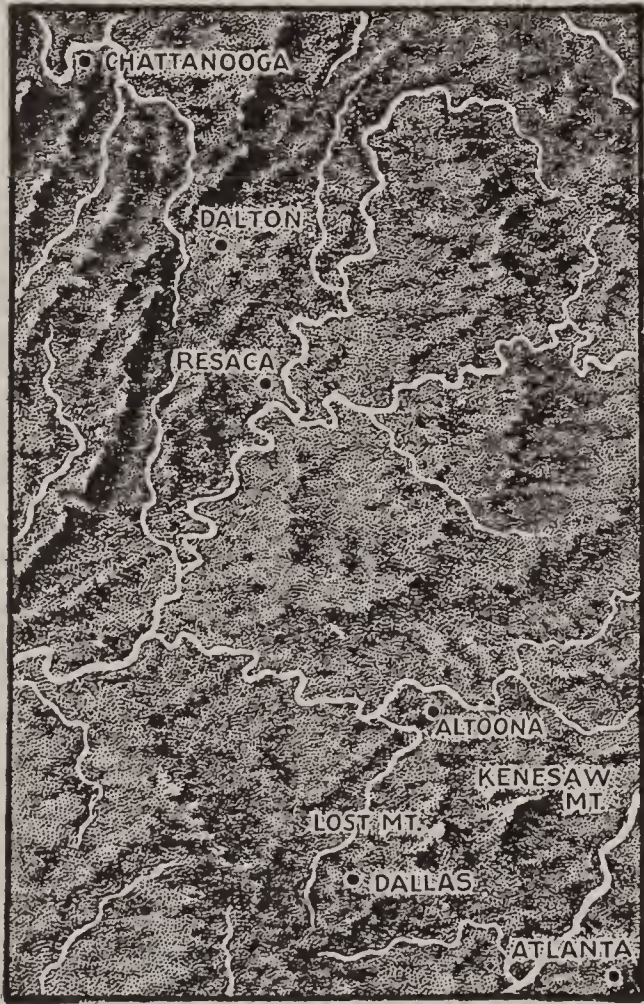
FOURTH AND LAST YEAR OF THE WAR—1864

412. Position of the Armies—Union Plan. At the beginning of 1864, Grant was made commander-in-chief of all the Union armies. He himself assumed direct control of the operations in Virginia, while the armies of the West, centered at Chattanooga, were put under the command of General Sherman. The Confederates had now but two chief centers of power—one at Dalton, Georgia, under the direction of General Joseph E. Johnston, and another at Richmond, Virginia, under General Lee. Early in the spring, Grant and Sherman met to arrange a plan for final movements.

Sherman, with an army of one hundred thousand men, was to defeat Johnston and march to the sea, while Grant, with one hundred twenty thousand men, was to move to Virginia and attack Lee. They were to march forth on the same day (May 4) in order to prevent the Confederate forces from giving aid to one another.

CAMPAIGNS IN TENNESSEE AND GEORGIA

413. Capture of Atlanta. In accordance with the plans of the two Union generals, Sherman moved from Chattanooga against Johnston, who was strongly intrenched at Dalton, Georgia. After defeating Johnston in the battles of Dalton, Resaca, Dallas, and Kenesaw Mountain, he at length, after a perilous four-month march, reached Atlanta, having sustained a loss of over thirty-one thousand men.



CHATTANOOGA TO ATLANTA

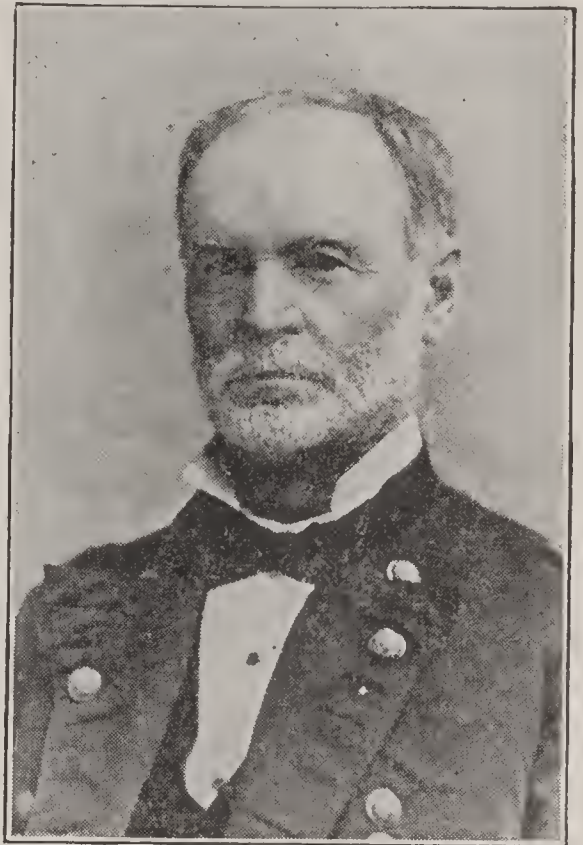
Georgia was the workshop, the storehouse, granary, and arsenal of the Confederacy, and Atlanta was the center from which all the necessities were furnished to the southern armies. By capturing it, the Union forces would strike the Confederacy an almost fatal blow. Its capture, however, was not an easy task. The Union center of supplies was Nashville, over a hundred miles from Chattanooga, and every mile of advance by the Federal troops into Georgia took them farther away from their base of supplies. The country was rough and mountainous; there was only a single line of railway over which supplies for the army could be

transported, and Sherman was compelled to leave parts of his army to protect this line against the enemy. The Confederate government, disapproving of Johnston's policy of constant retreat, appointed Hood to supersede him. Hood made three attacks upon Sherman at Atlanta, only to be defeated and finally

compelled to evacuate the city. He started northwestward toward Nashville, hoping thus to draw Sherman back to Tennessee.

Sherman, suspecting Hood's strategy, sent Thomas to hold Nashville, and followed Hood just long enough to be sure that he was really moving. He then returned to Atlanta, tearing up railroads and cutting telegraph wires as he went.

414. Sherman's March. After burning Atlanta Sherman started out on his three hundred-mile march to the sea. His army of sixty thousand men, marching in four columns, covered a path sixty miles in width. Railroads were torn up; buildings were burned; crops were destroyed; in fact, the whole region was left a barren waste. By the middle of December, Sherman, having reached the sea, stormed Fort McAllister, which guarded Savannah, and a week later captured the city itself. The effect of this march to the sea was of great importance to the North. The eastern part of the Confederacy was cut in two, and immense supplies of provisions were captured. Sherman sent the news of the capture of Savannah to the President in the following message: "I beg to present you as a Christmas gift the city of Savannah, with one hundred fifty heavy guns and plenty of ammunition; also about twenty-five thousand bales of cotton."



WILLIAM T. SHERMAN

415. The Federal Victory at Nashville. Hood crossed the Tennessee, and after severe fighting at Franklin, pushed on to Nashville, where he shut up General Thomas within the

fortifications. Thomas, after waiting two weeks, suddenly attacked Hood (December), and defeated the entire Confederate army, ending the war in the West.

416. Sherman Marches Northward. In February General Sherman, after his army had rested for about a month, started northward to join Grant in Virginia. On his way he captured Columbia, the capital of South Carolina. He then proceeded northward, encountering the Confederates at Averysboro and Bentonville and compelling them to withdraw to Raleigh, North Carolina. General Johnston evacuated the city a few days later and retired westward. He surrendered to Sherman at Durham's Station late in April.



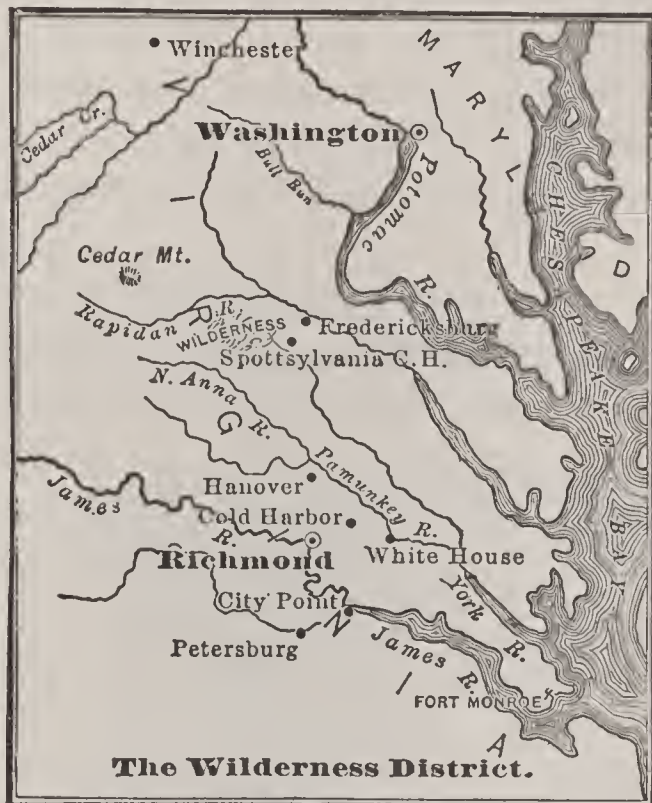
417. Grant's Campaign Against Lee. Grant's plan of advance against Lee in Virginia was threefold: he himself would move directly toward Richmond, attacking Lee at every favorable opportunity on the way; at the same time General Butler was to move against Richmond by the James River; while Franz Sigel was to confront the enemy in the Shenandoah Valley.

Grant's army of about one hundred twenty thousand crossed the Rapidan (May) and entered the Wilderness, a densely wooded region south of Chancellorsville. Here they met the Confederates under Lee, and a fierce battle was fought. After the second day's fighting, Grant telegraphed President Lincoln, "I propose to fight it out on this line if it takes all summer." He meant that he would batter Lee's lines until he broke through by superior fighting force and weight of numbers. After a day's rest Grant marched on toward Richmond, fighting the Confederates at Spottsylvania Court House and at Cold Harbor. In each of these battles thousands of men were lost. Grant now determined to attack Richmond from the south. He

swung his entire army across the James and proceeded to the strongly fortified city of Petersburg (June). Here he found that Lee had preceded him, and a long siege was necessary before the city could be taken.

418. Raids on the Shenandoah. Lee, in order to divert Grant's attention from Richmond, sent General Early, with about twenty thousand veterans, down the Shenandoah Valley to threaten Washington. Early made a brilliant dash, drove the Federals into Virginia, defeated General Lew Wallace at Monocacy, and came within a few miles of the city. He next invaded Pennsylvania, where he succeeded in burning the town of Chambersburg.

General Philip Sheridan, commander of the cavalry of the Potomac, was sent against Early. Sheridan defeated the Confederates (September) at Winchester, and drove them through the gaps of the Blue Ridge. Early suddenly returned, routed the Union forces at Cedar Creek, and sent them fleeing for their lives toward Winchester, some fourteen miles distant. Sheridan, who was returning from Washington, had chanced to stop off for the night at Winchester. Hearing the roar of the cannons, he immediately leaped on his horse and dashed toward the scene of defeat. He met the fugitives, urged them to halt, reformed their lines, and gallantly led them back to battle and to victory. In accordance with Grant's orders, Sheridan desolated the beautiful valley, burned houses, barns, mills, and grain, and drove away live stock of every kind. It is said that after his raid not even a crow could have found its living in the



valley. Within sixteen days Sheridan had cleared the Shenandoah Valley of the Confederates, had rendered the region a barren waste, and was back again with the Army of the Potomac. (Read "Sheridan's Ride" by Buchanan Read.)

419. New States. Two new states were admitted during the years 1863 and 1864: West Virginia as the thirty-fifth state and Nevada as the thirty-sixth.

OPERATIONS ON THE COAST

420. The Kearsarge Captures the Alabama. As has been previously told, England assisted the Confederacy by fitting



ADMIRAL FARRAGUT

out vessels which did great injury to the Union maritime commerce. Among these cruisers the most famous was the *Alabama*, commanded by Captain Semmes, a Confederate officer. It destroyed no less than sixty-nine United States merchantmen and ten million dollars' worth of property. After a long and destructive cruise in the waters of the West Indies, Brazil, and the East Indies, the *Alabama* was at last (June, 1864) brought to bay off the French port, Cherbourg, by the *Kearsarge*, a United States warship, commanded by the brave and

skillful Captain Winslow. A fierce one-hour duel ensued, in which the *Alabama* was shattered and sunk.

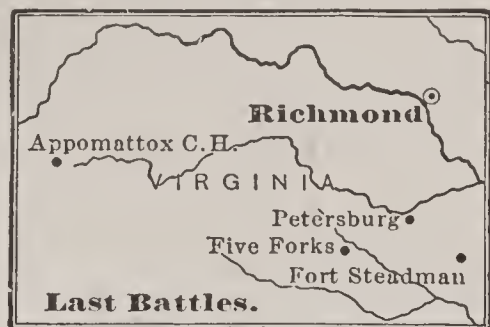
421. The Federals Capture Mobile and Fort Fisher. While Grant was campaigning against Lee in Virginia, and Sherman against Hood in Georgia, Admiral Farragut planned the capture of Mobile. With his strong fleet of fourteen wooden vessels and five monitors, he determined (August) to make a desperate

attempt to run past the two powerful forts, Gaines and Morgan, which guarded the city. After he had lashed the Union vessels in pairs for mutual assistance, Farragut tied himself to the rigging of his ship, where he could oversee every move of the battle. In a desperate conflict that lasted several hours, the Confederate iron ram *Tennessee* was taken, while the other vessels were either captured or put to flight, and Mobile was at length compelled to surrender.

Some months after the capture of Mobile, a powerful naval fleet under Admiral Porter, accompanied by a land force under General Terry, captured Fort Fisher, which defended the harbor of Wilmington, North Carolina. With this victory, one of the most brilliant of the war, the last Confederate channel of intercourse with foreign nations was closed.

CLOSE OF GRANT'S OVERLAND CAMPAIGN

422. The Federals Compel the Confederates to Evacuate Richmond. After Sheridan had desolated the Shenandoah Valley, he joined Grant in the siege of Petersburg. Lee made an effort to break through the Union lines, but was defeated by Sheridan in the battle of Five Forks. The next day Grant made a general attack on Petersburg, whereupon Lee evacuated both Petersburg and Richmond (April 3), and the Federal troops took possession of the Confederate capital. Lee retreated with the purpose of bringing his own and Johnston's forces together for a final stand. Grant's forces pursued him closely. Lee made an effort to escape with his army southward, but he was almost surrounded by Grant's forces, while Sherman, coming up from Raleigh, completely blocked his retreat to the South. The Confederates had for many days lived on parched corn and young shoots of trees, and many of them dropped their guns from exhaustion.



423. The Surrender of the Confederate Armies. Thus pressed on all sides, Lee, not wishing to cause needless bloodshed, surrendered to Grant at Appomattox Court House (April 9, 1865).

The two great commanders met in the McLean home, one of the largest of the five houses in Appomattox, to arrange the terms of surrender. By these terms:

- (a) the Confederate soldiers and officers were permitted to go home on their parole not to take up arms again until properly exchanged;
- (b) all the Confederate officers were allowed to retain their side arms, horses, and baggage; and the privates who owned horses and mules were permitted to take them home—"they will need them for the spring plowing," said Grant;
- (c) five days' rations were given to Lee's famished soldiers.

Johnston surrendered to Sherman (April 26), and the Civil War, which had so long desolated the country, was at an end.

424. The Confederate President and Officers. As soon as Richmond was evacuated, the officers of the Confederate government, hoping to escape to foreign shores, fled in various directions toward the coast. Jefferson Davis endeavored to escape capture by fleeing through the Carolinas into Georgia, but was taken at Irvinville (May 10, 1865). He was confined in Fortress Monroe until released on bail (1867). No other officer of the Confederate government was prosecuted. President Johnson pardoned all on Christmas Day, 1868. Only one Confederate was put to death at the close of the war—the keeper of the Andersonville prison, whose neglect of duty had caused the death of twelve thousand prisoners of war.

425. Lincoln Is Assassinated. The news that the war had ended was received with an outburst of joy in the North. Lincoln, who had been reelected in 1864, had said in his second inaugural address: "With malice toward none; with charity for all; with firmness in the right, as God gives us to see the

right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in; to bind up the nation's wounds; to care for him who shall have borne the battle, and for his widow, and his orphan—to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and lasting peace among ourselves, and with all nations.” But the joy of the nation was soon changed into sorrow by the assassination of President Lincoln at Ford's Theater in Washington, April 14, 1865. Lincoln was sitting in his private box in the theater, surrounded by his family and friends, when John Wilkes Booth, an actor, forced his way into the box and shot the President through the head. He then leaped over the railing upon the stage, and shouting, “*Sic semper tyrannis*” (“Thus ever to tyrants”—the motto of Virginia), rushed from the building. The President never regained consciousness and died the next morning.

No one was less deserving than President Lincoln of the reproachful title of “tyrant” ascribed to him by the assassin. No other man in all our political history had come so near to the hearts of the common people. If Washington is called the “Father of the People,” Lincoln may well be termed their “Elder Brother.” Trained in the hard school of poverty and want, and little used to refinements of society, he was gifted with great common sense, kindness, sincerity, farsightedness, shrewdness, and steadfastness of purpose. He showed the highest skill in dealing with his enemies and opponents and in interpreting the half-expressed will of the people; complete master of himself, he held to his convictions with an iron will. This honest, simple man won the admiration of the masses and rose to be, as Stanton asserted, one of the “most perfect rulers of men the world has ever seen.”

The whole nation mourned over the death of the great leader. His body was borne, midst the expressions of the deepest grief and affection, from Washington through the chief cities of the East and westward to Springfield, Illinois, where it was laid in its final resting place. In 1922 a great building at Washington, D. C., was dedicated to the memory of Lincoln.

426. Closing Events of the War. Before the Union soldiers disbanded, as many of them as possible marched to Washington for a general review before the President, Congress, and an immense throng of people. During two days the veterans under Grant and Sherman marched in one continuous column, twenty men deep and about thirty miles long, down Pennsylvania Avenue. After the parade the soldiers were disbanded.

427. Result of the War. The Civil War was the greatest of its kind in history. The cost in human life and property was enormous. More than half a million men were killed and several hundred thousand were permanently disabled. The destruction of property throughout the country, the value of slaves to the South, and the expenditure necessary to carry on the war amounted to more than seven billion dollars. But there were two important results:

- (a) the Union was preserved and the claim to the right of secession abandoned;
- (b) slavery was forever abolished by the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution (December, 1865).

428. Christian and Sanitary Commissions. The armies and navies were not the only agents distinguished for heroism during the long struggle of the Civil War. Humane and charitable men and women organized sanitary and Christian commissions. They made it their duty to provide sick and wounded soldiers with every possible relief and comfort, and the dead with proper burial. This noble work was supported by liberal contributions and by the income of "sanitary fairs" held in the principal towns and cities. Hundreds of women who had grown up in ease and luxury now prepared with their own hands bandages for the wounded, and moved about on the battlefield, in the camp, and in hospitals, nursing the sick and wounded. The women of the South, the scene of most of the war, bore the greatest privations. They even shared their meager food supplies with the sick and famished soldiers.

429. Catholicity and the Civil War. With the end of the Civil War a new era dawned for Catholicity. The terrible conflict had shaken, as it were, the very foundation of the nation; house had been divided against house, and brother had been striving against brother. Half the country had been laid waste and rendered desolate; on every side were weariness and exhaustion, and a longing for peace. But the Catholic Church had shed her brilliant light of charity through the gloom of war, and at the end of the struggle still stood undiminished in strength and unbroken in unity—the pride of her children and the admiration of thousands who, before the war, had looked upon her progress with jealous concern.

Great numbers of Protestants, who knew little of the Church, had been prejudiced against her. But they had been brought into intimate contact with Catholics during the war, and had seen enough of the Church and her sublime mission to make them forget their bigotry, which now gave way to genuine admiration. There was probably not a village throughout the land in which there could not be found some brave non-Catholic soldier who spoke the praises of some Catholic priest or Sister of Charity or noble Catholic fellow soldier.

Catholics were, it is true, divided on political grounds. They were all, however, united in faith, and Catholicity took no sides, but sent her heroes of charity to both armies. The Church sent her priests from the parish and the college, her nuns from the orphan asylums and schoolrooms, to the camp, the hospital, the prison, and the bloody battlefield. Meanwhile her places of worship resounded with earnest petitions to Heaven for peace and with solemn Requiems for the fallen.

430. Great Commanders. The Civil War brought to the front some able commanders. Of the Union generals, McClellan's services in organizing the Army of the Potomac were invaluable, but his excessive caution and the friction between the authorities at Washington and himself led to disappointments in his achievements against the Confederates. He was,

notwithstanding, very popular with the soldiers, by whom he was called "Little Mac." Grant, though not remarkable for his military tactics, is noted for his great pluck and for the fact that the three eventful surrenders—Donelson, Vicksburg, and

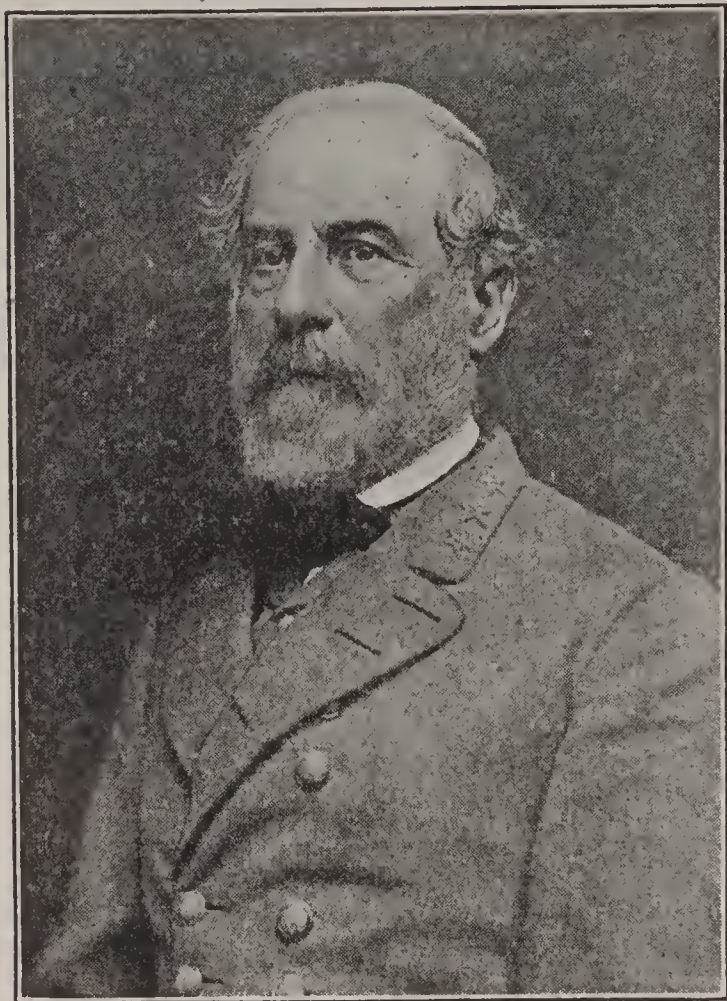
Appomattox — were all due to him. Next may be mentioned Sherman, Sheridan, Philip Kearney, and Farragut.

On the southern side Lee was by far the ablest general, and it is commonly believed that he had no equal in the North. He was the son of "Light-horse Harry" of Revolutionary fame. He was greatly loved by his soldiers and by the southern people, and this devotion so increased after the war that he always and everywhere received the most touching demonstrations of respect and affection.

Stonewall Jackson was

famous as a man of wonderful resources and power. Albert Sydney Johnston, who was developing into the ablest commander of the South, died an untimely death at Pittsburgh Landing. Next to these may be ranked Pemberton and Joseph E. Johnston.

431. Catholic Officers. The valor and patriotism of Catholics again maintained a position corresponding with their earlier history. Side by side with the names of Charles Carroll, Barry, Lafayette, Moylan, Fitzsimmon, and Archbishop Carroll may be



ROBERT E. LEE

found those of Sheridan, Rosecrans, Mulligan, and Archbishop Hughes. Among the many other Catholic officers not mentioned in our text were Shields, Meagher, Newton, Ewing, Sands, Hunt, Stone, McMahon, Kearney, and numerous others, the mention of whom would make this list too long.

At the head of the list of Catholic officers who acquired distinction in the war may be placed General Philip Sheridan. After graduating with honor from West Point, he distinguished himself during the Civil War as commander at Booneville, Perryville, Stone River, Missionary Ridge, and finally at Appomattox. Upon the declaration of peace he received, with Grant and Sherman, the applause of his countrymen.

Next on the list of our Catholic generals is Rosecrans, the last survivor of that remarkable quartet—Grant, Sherman, Sheridan, and Rosecrans. He greatly distinguished himself in the numerous eventful campaigns carried on by the Army of the Cumberland.

He was an outspoken and practical Catholic, and it was a common occurrence with him to have the sacrifice of the Mass offered at his headquarters in the field. Sheridan said of him that “a visitor to the city of Washington will find no more regular attendant at Mass in that decidedly Catholic city than Rosecrans—gallant and grand ‘Old Rosey,’ the hero and idol of the Army of the Cumberland.”



GENERAL PHILIP SHERIDAN

Questions

1. Locate Vicksburg. Why was its capture very important to the Union?
2. What work was being done by the Confederate blockade runners?

3. What were the effects of the draft acts? What were the greenbacks? What about their value?
4. What did the National Bank Act do?
5. What was Grant's plan of campaign in 1864? Be sure you use the map. Why was it an advantage to the Union to get control of Atlanta? What was the purpose of Sherman's march to the sea? Show at the map Grant's campaign against Lee in Virginia. What did Lee hope to accomplish by General Early's raid? Locate the place where Lee surrendered. Give the terms of the surrender.
6. What were the important results of the war? What humanitarian work was done during the war?
7. What effect did the war have upon religious toleration? Why? Why is it so very unhappy that religious sects should quarrel?

Theme Topics

1. Write a short theme on one of the following men: Rosecrans, Grant, Sherman, Lee, Johnston, Sheridan.
2. Write a brief estimate of Abraham Lincoln.
3. A Woman Nurses the Sick on a Battlefield.

CHRONOLOGICAL REVIEW

1861-1865

Abraham Lincoln's Administration (1861-1865)—Republican.

1861. Abraham Lincoln is inaugurated as the sixteenth President.

The Civil War begins with the attack on Fort Sumter (April 12).

Virginia, Arkansas, North Carolina, and Tennessee join the Confederacy.

Lincoln calls for seventy-five thousand volunteers (April 15). Davis calls for volunteers (April 17).

The attack on the Sixth Massachusetts regiment, while passing through Baltimore, occasions the first bloodshed of the Civil War (April 19).

Lincoln proclaims a blockade of the southern ports (April 19).

General Scott is appointed first in command of the Union forces (April).

The Confederates under Beauregard defeat the Federals under McDowell at Bull Run (July).

The "Trent Affair" occurs (November).

General McClellan supersedes Scott in command of the Union forces (November).

1862. The Federals under Grant and Foote defeat the Confederates in the battles of Forts Henry and Donelson (February).

The Confederate ironclad *Merrimac* is defeated in Hampton Roads by the Union ironclad *Monitor* (March).

The Confederates under Johnston are defeated by the Federals under Grant at Shiloh (April).

New Orleans is captured by the Union fleet under Farragut (April).

The Federals open the Mississippi to Vicksburg by taking Island No. 10, Fort Pillow, and Memphis (April-June).

The Federals under McClellan win the battles of Williamsburg, Fair Oaks, and the Seven Days' Battles (May-June).

General Halleck supersedes McClellan.

Jackson makes a dashing raid through the Shenandoah Valley.

The Federals under Pope are defeated by the Confederates under Lee at Bull Run (August).

The Confederates under Lee win the battle of Harper's Ferry, but are defeated by McClellan at Antietam (September).

The first issue of greenbacks is made.

General Bragg invades Kentucky and is defeated by the Federals at Perryville and Murfreesboro.

General Burnside supersedes McClellan in command of the Army of the Potomac (November).

The Federals under Burnside are defeated by the Confederates under Lee at Fredericksburg (December).

General Hooker supersedes Burnside (December).

1863. Lincoln issues the Emancipation Proclamation (January 1).

The Federals under Hooker are defeated by the Confederates under Lee at Chancellorsville (May).

Stonewall Jackson is accidentally shot by one of his own men after the battle of Chancellorsville.

General Meade supersedes Hooker in command (June).

West Virginia is admitted to the Union as the thirty-fifth state (June).

The Federals under Meade defeat the Confederates under Lee at Gettysburg (July). The battle becomes the turning point of the war.

The Confederates under Lee retreat into Virginia.

The Federals under Grant capture Vicksburg (July).

The Confederates under Pemberton surrender Port Hudson and the remaining Confederate posts on the Mississippi River to General Banks (July).

The Draft Riot occurs in New York City (July).

The Federals under Rosecrans are defeated by the Confederates under Bragg in the desperate battle of Chickamauga (September).

Gettysburg is made a national cemetery and Lincoln makes his famous Gettysburg address (November).

Generals Sherman and Thomas capture Missionary Ridge, while Hooker captures Lookout Mountain (November).

Congress passes the National Banking Act.

1864. Archbishop Hughes dies (January).

General Grant is made lieutenant-general (March).

General Sherman in his march from Chattanooga to Atlanta takes, in succession, Resaca, Dallas, Kenesaw Mountain, and Atlanta (May-November).

The Union forces under General Grant, and the Confederates under Lee, fight an indecisive battle at the Wilderness, but Grant attacks them again in the battles of Spottsylvania and Cold Harbor (May-July).

The Union vessel *Kearsarge* captures and sinks the Confederate vessel *Alabama* (June).

Early begins his raid in the Shenandoah Valley (July).

The Federals under Farragut capture Mobile Bay (August).

Grant sends General Sheridan against Early.

The Federals under Sheridan win the battle of Winchester (September).

Nevada is admitted to the Union as the thirty-sixth state (October).

President Lincoln is reëlected (November).

The Federals under Thomas attack and defeat the Confederates under Hood at Nashville (December).

The Confederates are defeated by a Union naval fleet under Admiral Porter at Fort Fisher (December).

General Sherman reaches the sea and captures Savannah (December).

1865. Sherman marches northward through the Carolinas and secures possession of Charleston, Columbia, Bentonville, Averysboro, and Raleigh.

The Federals under Grant defeat the Confederates under Lee in the battles of Five Forks and Petersburg, and finally compel them to evacuate Richmond.

The Confederate forces under General Lee surrender to General Grant at Appomattox Court House and lay down their arms (April 9).

President Lincoln is assassinated by Wilkes Booth (April 14).

PERIOD OF RECONSTRUCTION AND EXPANSION

CHAPTER XXXII

ANDREW JOHNSON'S ADMINISTRATION

REPUBLICAN—1865-1869

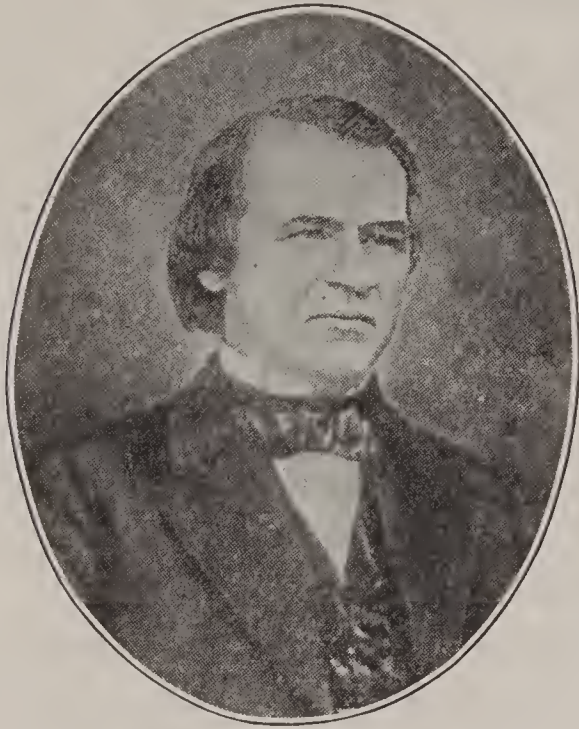
432. The Successor of Lincoln. Within three hours after the death of Lincoln, Andrew Johnson, the Vice-president, quietly assumed the duties of the presidency. Born in North Carolina, he moved to Tennessee, where he had served as Governor, Representative, and Senator. In the election of 1859 he had been chosen Vice-president of the country.

In many respects the life of Johnson was like that of Lincoln. He was of humble birth, and had risen to high posts of public trust. Johnson had many noble qualities, but he lacked Lincoln's tact and genius for understanding and persuading men. Although he held strict views of states' rights, he had no sympathy with the secession movement. When Tennessee seceded, he ignored the action of his state, remaining at his post in the Senate.

433. Problems of Reconstruction and Reunion. Now that the war was over, the government was confronted with three serious problems: (1) the status of the seceded states, (2) the treatment of the secession leaders, and (3) the care of the millions of emancipated slaves. In 1863, when the Union armies occupied large portions of the Confederacy, President Lincoln had issued a "Proclamation of Amnesty." In this, he extended full pardon and restoration of property rights to all persons (with the exception of the leaders of secession) who would take an oath to

support the Constitution, the Acts of Congress, and the Emancipation Proclamation.

Johnson's views on the problem of reconstruction were practically the same as those of Lincoln. During the first eight months of his presidency, he pushed forward the work of recon-



ANDREW JOHNSON

struction. Since Congress was not in session, he had his own way in dealing with the southern states. He raised the blockade, opening the southern ports to the world's trade. He appointed a provisional governor in each of the Confederate states. Under the direction of these governors, the qualified white voters held conventions which declared secession null and void; repudiated the Confederate war debt, promising never to pay it; and abolished slavery. They also reorganized the state governments. The legislatures then ratified the Thirteenth Amendment.

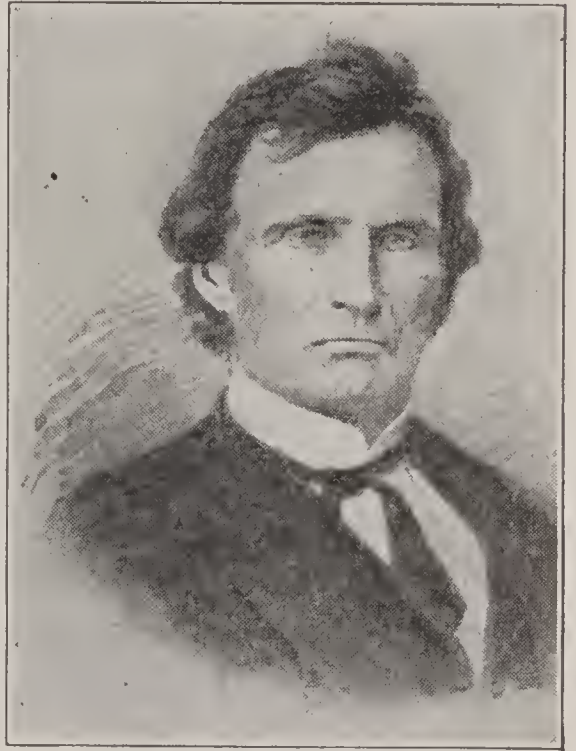
When this was done, President Johnson recognized the state governments, and declared them to be entitled to representation in Congress (December, 1865).

434. The Thirteenth Amendment. The Emancipation Proclamation had abolished slavery in the seceded states only. In the southern states that had not joined the Confederacy, the right to buy and keep slaves still existed, although some of these states—Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri—had already begun the work of freeing their slaves. The Thirteenth Amendment was introduced into Congress, providing that slavery be forever abolished in every state of the Union. After much excitement the Amendment was passed by Congress. In December, 1865, when three-fourths of the states had ratified

the Amendment, it became a part of the Constitution. (See Appendix: Constitution, Article XIII.)

435. The Black Codes. After the Emancipation Proclamation was issued, thousands of negroes left the plantations of the South. Many of them, becoming good-for-nothing tramps who refused to work, wandered from place to place, or flocked to the large cities where they lived by begging or stealing. Several southern legislatures, alarmed at this condition, passed very severe laws to control the negroes. These laws, which practically introduced a new form of involuntary servitude, angered the North and hindered the work of reconstruction.

436. Reconstruction Policy of Congress. When Congress met in 1865, it overthrew Johnson's work, denied southern members their seats, and appointed a joint committee of the two Houses to consider the subject of reconstruction. This action aroused the in-



THADDEUS STEVENS

dignation of President Johnson and brought about a bitter quarrel between him and Congress. The ruling party (Republican) adopted the view that the southern states, as a result of their secession, had deprived themselves of all civil government, and had forfeited their rights of self-government. Radical views against the southern states were held by Senator Charles Sumner and Representative Thaddeus Stevens, who maintained that the southern states, by an act of rebellion, had destroyed their existence as self-governing commonwealths. They advocated the holding of the southern states as conquered provinces to be governed as territorial dependencies under the sole power of Congress.

The President declared that the states never had been out of the Union and never had lost any of their rights. He vetoed the Freedman's Bureau Bill, which virtually made the emancipated negroes wards of the nation. Johnson also vetoed the Civil Rights Bill, by which the negro was granted all the rights of citizenship, except the right to vote. Congress promptly passed the bill by a two-thirds majority over his veto.

437. The Fourteenth Amendment. In 1866 Congress passed the Fourteenth Amendment which made citizenship the constitutional right of all persons born or naturalized in the United States, and imposed a penalty of loss of representation upon any state which denied to male citizens of the proper age the right to vote. It further excluded from Federal and State offices the southern leaders and made impossible the paying of the Confederate debt and compensation for slaves. All the southern States rejected the Amendment except Tennessee, which was immediately allowed representation in Congress.

The ill-feeling between Congress and the President kept steadily increasing. Neither tried to please the other. To make matters still worse, Johnson, on a trip through the country, made speeches in many of the western cities, denouncing Congress and its plan of action, calling it a "factious, domineering, tyrannical Congress," "a Congress violently breaking up the Union." His intemperate and undignified language weakened rather than strengthened his cause, and disgraced his high office.

When the elections of 1866 came the country gave the Radicals a two-thirds majority in Congress. This enabled them to proceed with their severe plans of reconstructing the southern States.

438. Congressional Reconstruction. The policy now adopted toward the South was one of great rigor. The state governments established by President Johnson were declared to be provisional, and the ten states were divided into five military districts, each under a general of the army as military governor. These governors were instructed to summon a constitutional con-

vention in each state, chosen by male citizens twenty-one years of age without regard to their race. Everyone disqualified from holding office by the proposed Fourteenth Amendment was also disqualified from voting. This meant that a large number of white men could not vote, while all the negroes were allowed to do so. It was further provided that the new constitutions must grant negro suffrage permanently. Only when these constitutions had been ratified by the same group of voters which had elected the convention and they had been approved by Congress, and when the first legislature under them had ratified the Fourteenth Amendment, would the states be restored to all their rights in the Union.

By June, 1868, seven of the seceded states had carried out these conditions and had been restored.

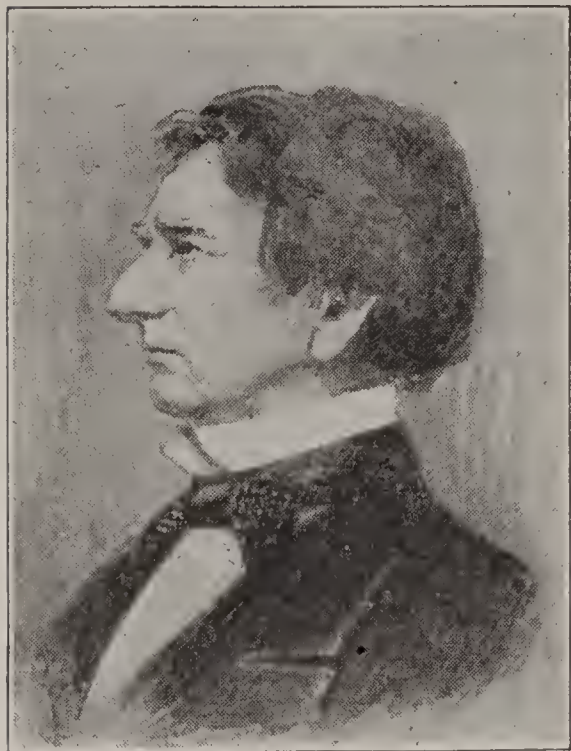
In 1869 Congress adopted the Fifteenth Amendment, which provided that no citizen of the United States could be denied the right to vote on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude. (See Appendix: The Constitution, Article XV.) It, together with the Fourteenth Amendment, was made a condition for the readmission of Virginia, Georgia, Mississippi, and Texas, the states that were belated in their reconstruction. By January, 1871, these four states had accepted the Amendments, and the work of reconstruction was complete.

439. The Tenure of Office Act. In accordance with the custom of his predecessors since Jackson's time, Johnson removed many Republican officeholders who were not in sympathy with his administration. This occasioned the Tenure of Office Act, by which every officer appointed with the advice and consent of the Senate should continue to hold his position until the senators agreed to his removal.

440. Johnson Is Impeached. In 1864 Johnson suspended Edwin M. Stanton from the office of Secretary of War, and appointed General Grant to succeed him. The Senate refused to agree to this. A little later the President again removed Stanton and appointed General Lorenzo Thomas in his stead.

The House hereupon impeached the President for eleven "high crimes and misdemeanors," which, summarized, were his violation of the Tenure of Office Act in the removal of Secretary

Stanton; his public speeches against Congress, which decreased the confidence of the people in the legislative body of the nation; and his opposition to the Reconstruction Act.



WILLIAM H. SEWARD

Thus, for the first and only time in our history, was the President called to be tried by the Senate. The trial continued for two months, with the members of the Senate acting as judges and Chief Justice Chase presiding. At the test vote thirty-five senators voted guilty and nineteen not guilty. Consequently, there was one vote lacking for a two-thirds majority

in the Senate, and the President escaped conviction.

441. The French in Mexico. While the United States was engrossed in civil strife, France, Great Britain, and Spain agreed to force Mexico to pay the debts due to these countries. Great Britain and Spain, however, soon withdrew their demands. Napoleon III, Emperor of France, determined to establish a French empire in Mexico. By 1864 the Mexican government was overthrown and Maximilian, archduke of Austria (a brother of the Emperor of Austria), was made Emperor of Mexico. Though the United States considered this an open violation of the Monroe Doctrine, she could at that time only protest against it. Immediately after the war, however (1865), Secretary Seward demanded that the French withdraw from Mexico. At the same time Sheridan was sent to Texas with fifty thousand veterans. The French ruler now withdrew his army. Maxi-

milian, however, remained, but soon after was taken prisoner, tried by court martial, and shot by Mexican authorities, who reestablished the republic.

442. The Submarine Telegraph. After several unsuccessful attempts, Cyrus W. Field finally laid the first Atlantic cable, which established telegraphic communication between the Old and the New World (1866). His first attempted Atlantic cable (1858) extended from Heart's Content, Newfoundland, to Valencia Bay, Ireland. It had carried, however, only about three hundred messages when it ceased to work. His second attempt (1865) also failed, the cable parting in mid-ocean. With the help of the steamship *Great Eastern* he eventually laid a successful cable.

443. A New State—The Purchase of Alaska. During Johnson's administration, Nebraska was admitted (1867), over the President's veto, as the thirty-seventh state, just in time for it to take part in the presidential election of 1868.

Through the diplomacy of Secretary Seward, the United States (1867) concluded a treaty with the Russian government by which it secured possession of the vast territory of Alaska (over five hundred ninety thousand square miles) for \$7,200,000. By this purchase another European power was removed from the American continent. The carrying out of the Monroe Doctrine was thus rendered easier. From the time of its discovery and exploration by Russians under Vitus Bering (1728-1741) until it was ceded to the United States, Alaska had been known as



AN ALASKAN TRADING POST

“Russian-America.” Secretary Seward was loudly denounced for paying such a large sum of money for what was believed to be only a large field of icebergs. Since then, however, Alaska has come to be known as wonderfully rich in minerals, forests, fisheries, and furs.

444. The Second Plenary Council. The Second Plenary Council of the Church in the United States convened (1866) at Baltimore and was presided over by Archbishop Spalding as Delegate Apostolic. Seven archbishops, thirty-nine bishops, two mitred abbots, and one hundred twenty theologians took part in its proceedings. It enacted measures providing for the greater uniformity of discipline and the general well-ordering of the affairs of the Church in America. The session continued for two weeks and closed with a scene of solemn grandeur, at which President Johnson was present.

Questions

1. What did Johnson do to help the southern states? Read the Thirteenth Amendment to the constitution. What was the attitude of Congress toward Johnson's plans? What did Congress do to the southern states? Read the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments and be able to give the substance of each.

2. What is impeachment? Why did Congress impeach the President?

3. How did the United States uphold the Monroe Doctrine during this period? What new territory was added to the United States? How was it obtained? What resources has it?

4. When and where was the second Plenary Council held? Who presided?

Theme Topic

Write a short theme on Cyrus W. Field.



CHAPTER XXXIII

ULYSSES S. GRANT'S ADMINISTRATION

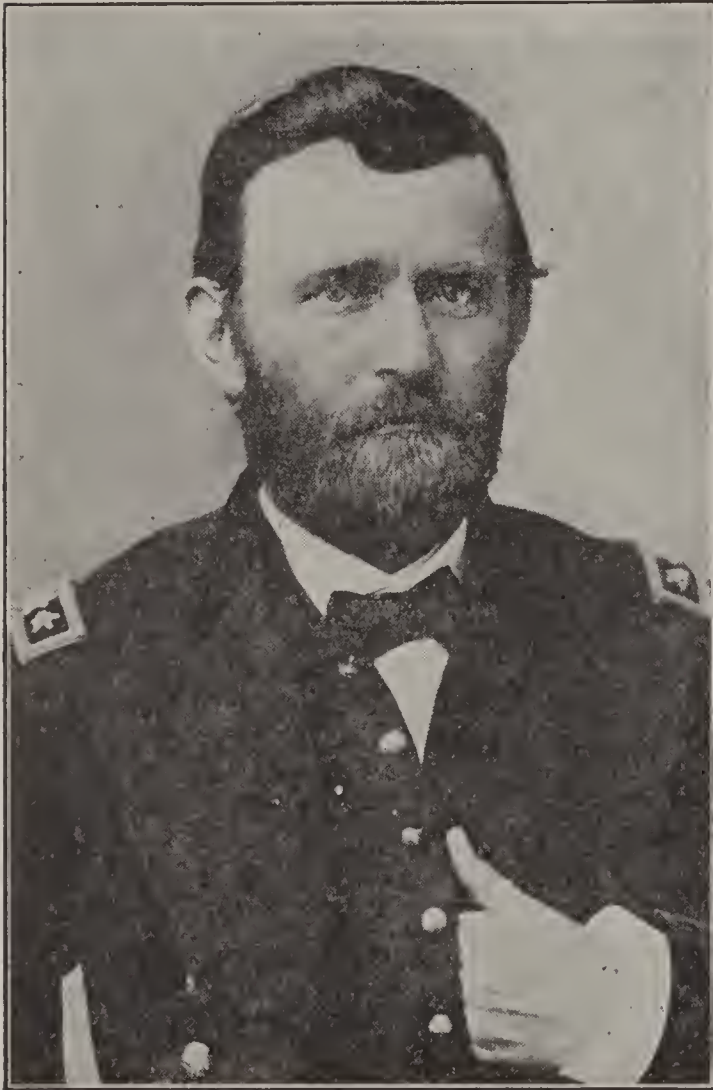
REPUBLICAN—1869-1877

445. Grant Elected. At the election of 1868, the Republican candidate, Ulysses Simpson Grant (1822-1885), of Civil War fame, was elected President. He was a native of Mount Pleasant, Ohio. He spent four years at West Point, and later served in the Mexican and Civil Wars. Although Grant was absolutely honest in the discharge of his duties, his administration as President was not wholly successful, owing largely to the fact that some of his advisers proved most unworthy.

446. Three Classes of People Control the South. As a consequence of the reconstruction policy of Congress, there was a complete revolution in the political conditions in the South. The party formerly in control was now devoid of power, and the government was in hands of negroes, a certain class of white men called "scalawags," who exerted an influence for evil over ignorant negroes, and northern politicians called "carpet-baggers," who were said to carry all their possessions in carpet-bags.

Under this new rule, known in history as the period of carpet-bag government (1868-1876), public affairs were conducted in a shameful and corrupt manner. Heavy taxes were levied on property owned chiefly by the disfranchised whites. Millions of dollars were wasted or stolen, and the states were plunged heavily in debt. Ignorant and vicious negroes filled the offices which once had been occupied by brilliant southern statesmen. The negroes, tasting power for the first time, sometimes used it to obtain vengeance upon their former masters.

Stung by the overbearing conduct of the negroes and carpet-baggers, the southern whites began a determined effort to regain control of affairs and to save their governments from negro rule. Peaceable means were at first resorted to, but, when



GENERAL U. S. GRANT

these proved futile, secret societies were formed, which, through mysterious warnings and midnight raids conducted by white-robed horsemen, attempted to frighten the negroes from voting or holding office. These organizations, controlled at first by the better class of southern people, fell into the hands of the rougher and more lawless element, and a reign of terror began.

447. The Ku Klux Klan. The most famous of these secret organizations was the Ku Klux Klan. This was at first a sort of police, originated by the young men of Tennessee (1866) as a means of keep-

ing the negroes under control by working upon their superstitions. But it spread throughout the South and before long was committing acts of extreme violence and outrage.

448. The Force Bills. In 1870 and 1872 Congress passed the "Force Bills," which provided severe penalties for anyone who tried to prevent the negroes from voting. The polls and election of members to Congress were placed under the control of United

States officers and courts; and the President was authorized to make use of the United States troops to maintain order.

In the next few years troops were frequently called upon to put down riots, and by 1872 the evils of the Ku Klux Klan had been generally suppressed. Meanwhile, however, the southern whites (Democrats) managed to defeat the Republicans at the polls, and by 1876 had obtained control of all their state governments.

449. Grant Is Reëlected. In the election of 1872 Grant defeated Horace Greeley, the candidate of the Liberal Republicans and Democrats combined, by an overwhelming majority.

450. The Alabama Claims. Meanwhile, war had broken out between Germany and France. England, fearing she might be drawn into the conflict, wished to assure herself of the friendship of the United States. Congress seized the opportunity to take up anew what was known as the Alabama Claims against Great Britain. These claims arose from the losses to American shipping caused by the *Alabama* and other Confederate cruisers fitted out in British ports during the Civil War. England, though at first unwilling even to consider these claims, now asked for a commission to settle the differences. The commission, consisting of five members, named by the governments of the United States, England, Italy, Switzerland, and Brazil met in Geneva, Switzerland (1872), and decided on what is known as the "Geneva Award." By this award, Great Britain paid the United States for damage done our commerce during the Civil War the sum of fifteen million five hundred thousand dollars in gold. This event marked the beginning of the practice of settling international differences by arbitration rather than by war.

451. The First Transcontinental Railroad. The Civil War had shown the necessity of some better means of communication between the East and the West than the Oregon and Santa Fe trails. Two companies were soon formed for the purpose of constructing a transcontinental railroad—the Union Pacific

company, which worked from Omaha westward, and the Central Pacific, which worked from San Francisco eastward. The government gave to the companies both financial assistance and vast tracts of land along the route. The workmen from both directions finally met at Ogden, Utah (1869), where the last spike, made of gold, was driven with great ceremony. The



JOINING THE RAILROADS

Union Pacific Railroad, the first commercial link between the Atlantic and Pacific, was completed.

452. Financial Panic of 1873. Great panics occurred after the war of 1812, also in 1837, and again in 1857. Very similar was the financial crash

of 1873. It was preceded by a period of general prosperity. People wanted to get rich easily and quickly. They undertook great business enterprises on borrowed capital. Railroad mileage grew faster than the population. Fortunes were made by some and lost by others in buying tracts of land in unsettled regions and increasing their value by extending railroads through them. Meanwhile, the supply of money in the country decreased; prices fell suddenly; and with the failure of the rich banking house of Jay Cooke & Co., of New York City, a terrible financial panic began which swept over the entire country, leaving thousands of business enterprises in ruins and millions of poor people either without support or with greatly reduced wages. Only after five or six years did the country recover from the effects of this panic.

453. The Resumption of Specie Payment. The large issue of paper money had driven gold and silver out of circulation. In 1875 Congress passed a bill which provided that, on January

1, 1879, the government resume "Specie Payment," that is, make the paper dollar equal to a dollar in gold. A reserve of considerably more than one hundred million dollars was in the treasury for the redemption of paper money.

454. Gold Coin, Standard of Value. In 1873 Congress dropped the silver dollar from our coinage and ordered that nothing be coined for home use but gold, small silver pieces, and "coppers." This left the gold coin the only legal standard of value. The discovery of rich silver mines in Nevada and elsewhere had so reduced the value of the metal that many European nations stopped coining it. The new coinage act ordered the coinage of some silver called "trade dollars," not for use at home, but in our trade with China, in competition with Spanish and Mexican dollars.

455. The Weather Bureau. In 1870 Congress made an appropriation for the establishment of a Weather Bureau at Washington, to be connected by telegraphic communication with stations of observation all over the country. By means of this bureau, forecasts of storms, dangerous winds, rains, cold waves, and heavy frosts are made with considerable accuracy. This bureau has saved billions of dollars to farmers and to shipping interests, and has prevented the loss of thousands of lives by displaying its warning signals along the coast. The Weather Bureau was originally a branch of the War Department, but since 1891 it has been under the control of the Department of Agriculture.

456. Indian Affairs. The Indian affairs of the country at this period were involved in difficulties. President Grant (1870) divided the Indians among the various religious denominations of the country, but did not give a single superintendency to Catholics. Only comparatively few agencies were confided to the Catholic Church, the first and ever-faithful protector of the Indian. Thus the Catholic Indians of the United States, many of whose forefathers had been converted by Catholic missionaries long before Protestants set foot on our soil, were handed

over to Protestant denominations. Naturally, Grant's action only increased the difficulties.

The Modoc Indians refused to be removed from their hunting grounds in California to their reservation in Oregon. As a result war ensued (1872). In the midst of a peace conference held between the Indians and the white agents, the Indians treacherously slew General Canby and Dr. Thomas. The Modocs were then besieged and forced to surrender. Their chief, Captain Jack, and other prominent leaders were executed.

The Sioux Indians had been assigned a reservation in the Black Hill country, which comprised parts of Dakota and Wyoming. When a portion of this country was invaded by gold seekers, Congress canceled the Indian title to that part of it. This act angered the Indians, who, under their famous chief, Sitting Bull, became hostile. United States troops were sent to subdue them. In June, 1876, a force of nearly three hundred men under General George A. Custer was massacred at Little Big Horn River by nine thousand Sioux. Sitting Bull then retreated into English territory, but kept menacing the western country till the Canadian authorities commanded him to abandon all hostile plans or leave their country. He finally sued for peace and returned to the United States.

457. Destructive Fires. A great fire broke out in Chicago in October (1871). It raged for two days, laying waste many square miles, including the business portion of the city. Two hundred million dollars' worth of property was destroyed, one hundred thousand persons were rendered homeless, and two hundred and fifty lives were lost. Contributions from nearly all parts of the world, amounting to more than half a million dollars, were sent for the relief of the homeless people.

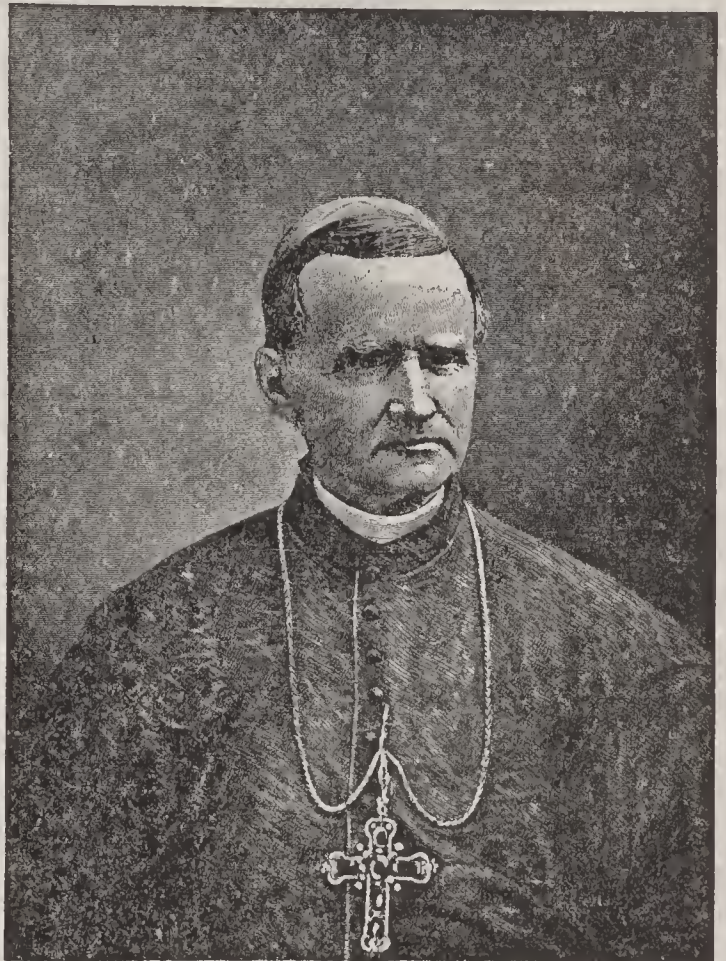
The following year the business section of Boston was also destroyed by fire, which swept away eighty million dollars' worth of property.

At about the time of the Chicago disaster, fearful forest fires, sweeping through the timber districts of Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Michigan, consumed entire villages and caused great loss of life and property.

458. The Centennial Exhibition—A New State. In 1876 the hundredth anniversary of the Declaration of Independence was celebrated by a centennial exhibition at Philadelphia, in which all the civilized nations of the world took part. The Centennial Exhibition revealed to the world the richness and variety of our natural productions and the superiority of the United States over all other countries in useful inventions. The most remarkable novelties exhibited were the telephone, invented by Graham Bell of Massachusetts, and the application of the electric light.

Colorado, which became known as the "Centennial state," entered the Union as the thirty-eighth state, in 1876.

459. The First American Cardinal. During Grant's administration occurred one of the most memorable events in the history of the Church of the United States—Pius IX, of blessed memory, gave the American Catholics their first Cardinal in the person of the Venerable John McCloskey, the successor of Archbishop Hughes in the Archiepiscopal See of New York. His solemn investiture took place in the unfinished St. Patrick's



CARDINAL MCCLOSKEY

Cathedral (April 27, 1875), which edifice His Eminence later solemnly dedicated to the service of God (May, 1877).

The last public act of Cardinal McCloskey is one for which the American Church will ever feel deeply grateful. The Italian government's act of spoliation of ecclesiastical property threatened also (1884) to expropriate the American College at Rome. The Cardinal at once laid the matter before President Arthur, appealing for the protection of the institution as the property of American citizens. The Secretary of State, through the American minister, brought the case to the notice of the Italian government, and the college was saved.

Questions

1. What three groups of people now controlled the South? Describe the "carpet-bag" government. How did the southerners combat this rule? What did the Force Bills do?
2. What was the Alabama Affair? Why was it significant? What is meant by arbitration?
3. Describe the construction of the first transcontinental railway.
4. Why did a financial panic occur in 1873? What is meant by "Specie Payment"? Why did Congress drop the silver dollar and make gold the standard?
5. When was the Weather Bureau established and what is its value?
6. What caused the Modocs and the Sioux to rebel?
7. What were the results of the Centennial Exposition in Philadelphia?
8. Who was the first American Cardinal? How many Cardinals have we today?

Theme Topics

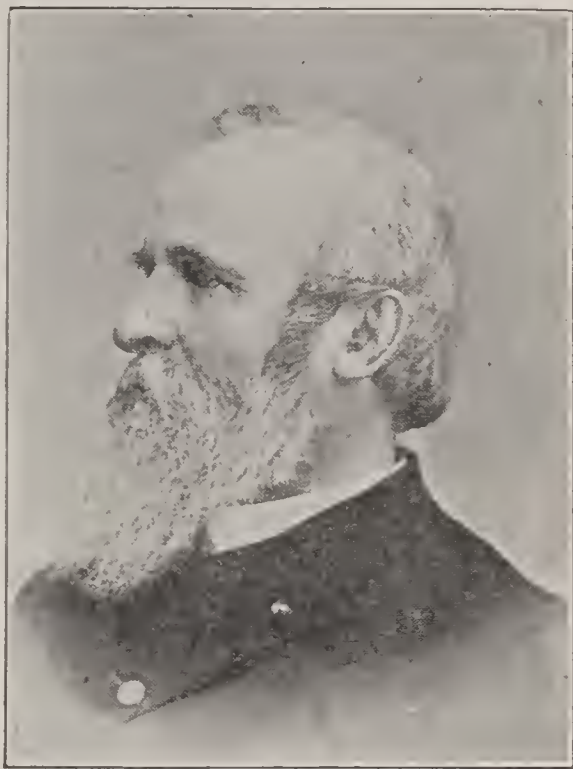
1. Write a theme of two or three paragraphs describing the joining of the railroads. (See picture on page 346.)
2. Cardinal McCloskey.

CHAPTER XXXIV

RUTHERFORD B. HAYES'S ADMINISTRATION

REPUBLICAN—1877-1881

460. Hayes Elected. Twice in our history (1800, 1824) the electoral college failed to choose a president, but only once has a president been chosen by a joint high commission. In 1876 a Democratic majority seemed to sweep the country. But in three of the southern states—Louisiana, South Carolina, and Florida—where carpet-bag rule was still in existence, there were rival state governments and governors. These states sent two sets of votes to the president of the Senate to be counted. The Senate, being Republican, accepted the Republican returns, while the House, being Democratic, considered the Democratic returns as the true ones. Since Tilden had one hundred eighty-four undisputed votes, the counting of one vote from the states in dispute would make him President. On the other hand, all the votes from the disputed states would be required to give Hayes a majority. To settle the difficulty, Congress referred the matter to a joint high commission composed of five senators, five representatives, and five justices of the Supreme Court. Eight of these commissioners



RUTHERFORD B. HAYES

were Republicans and seven were Democrats. By a vote of eight to seven the commission decided Hayes elected. The Democrats were naturally dissatisfied, but the bitterness aroused by the contest soon subsided, and Hayes was peacefully inaugurated.

Rutherford B. Hayes (1822-1893), a native of Ohio, was a graduate of Kenyon College in his own state and of the Harvard Law School. During the war he entered the Union army, in which he rose to the rank of brigadier-general. He served two terms as congressman, after which he was three times chosen governor of his state. Owing to the dispute over his election, he entered upon his office under very unfavorable conditions, but he soon proved himself qualified to lead the nation during the time of peace and progress upon which it was entering.

461. The Solid South. President Hayes, wishing to reëstablish the friendship formerly existing between the North and South, withdrew the Federal troops from the southern states. The carpet-bag governments, being unable to stand without military support, were overthrown by the southern Democrats, who at once obtained control of these states. From this time forward the white vote of the South assumed control and the negro ceased to govern. The epoch of reconstruction had finally come to a close (1877).

462. New Industrial Conditions. During the war, when people had been forced to do business on a large scale, they learned from experience that there was more to be gained in united action than in competition. After the war this fact led to the formation of corporations, that is, the combining of the capital and interests of several men in one enterprise. Many of these corporations united so as to make one great company, known as a "trust." The great railroad lines were combined under the management of a few companies. The oil, sugar, cotton, tobacco, steel, and numerous other industries eventually came under the control of trusts, which crowded out the smaller companies. Large numbers of women and children were em-

ployed in factories, while a reduction of wages and an increase in the duties and hours of labor for employees followed. The result of the new industrial conditions was a general feeling of discontent among the laboring classes.

463. Labor Unions. In order to check the aggressiveness of corporations, which threatened to oppress the toiling masses, labor unions, which had existed in our country even before the Constitution, now became more numerous and wide-spread.



EADS BRIDGE

The two primary objects of most labor unions were the increase of wages and the decrease of hours of labor. The demands of the unions led to organized struggles between labor and capital, which brought about strikes, "black lists," and boycotts. The "black lists" contained names of the labor union leaders to whom the employers refused to give employment.

464. Eads and the Mississippi Jetties. During Hayes's administration an achievement of vast importance to the South was accomplished (1875-1879) by Captain B. Eads of St. Louis, the builder of the ironclads used during the war and of the

great steel arch bridge spanning the river at St. Louis. Large quantities of mud and sand, carried seaward by the Mississippi-Missouri, gradually filled up the mouths of the Mississippi, thus preventing the passage of heavy steamers. Both the United States and the Louisiana governments had spent millions of dollars in repeated attempts to remove the bars and deepen the channel. Captain Eads, after great opposition, was finally allowed by Congress to try the "jetty system" used in the low countries of Europe. By means of thousands of bundles of faggots he narrowed the channel so as to increase the force of the current to such a degree as to sweep out its own channel, thus making it possible for large steamers to pass up to New Orleans or out to sea without difficulty. The success of this gigantic undertaking helped to make New Orleans by far the largest and most important commercial city of the South.

465. The Bland-Allison Bill. Owing to the discovery of new and rich silver mines in some of the western states and to popular demand for the coinage of silver, Congress decided to remonetize silver by providing that a certain amount should be purchased and coined each month. In 1878 the Bland-Allison Bill was passed. It provided that our government should buy not less than two million nor more than four million dollars' worth of silver bullion each month to be coined into silver dollars.

466. The Resumption of Specie Payment. According to the act (1875) providing for the resumption of specie payment, the national treasury was fully prepared at the appointed time (January, 1879) to exchange the people's greenbacks at par value for gold. Even those very persons who had been hoarding legal tender notes for that express purpose, now showed no desire to obtain gold when it was worth no more than silver or greenbacks, because paper money was so much more convenient to handle. Since 1879 our paper money has been equal to gold or silver, and the government has ever since held to the policy of maintaining the three kinds of money on an equality.

Questions

1. How was Hayes elected? What did he do to help friendly relations between the North and the South? What was the result politically in the South?
2. How had business men learned the value of organization? What is a corporation? A trust? What led to organizations of labor men? What was their purpose? What is a strike?
3. What did Eads do?
4. What was the Bland-Allison Bill? What does "remonetize" mean?

Theme Topics

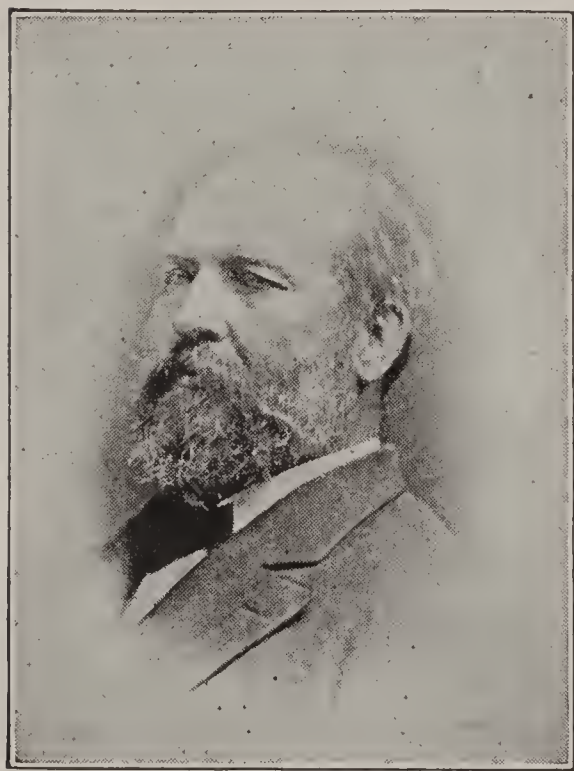
1. Write a short theme on Rutherford B. Hayes.
2. Make a list of the things accomplished by the building of the Eads bridge.

CHAPTER XXXV

THE GARFIELD-ARTHUR ADMINISTRATION

REPUBLICAN—1881-1885

467. Garfield Elected. At the election of 1880 the Republican candidate, James A. Garfield (1831-1881) was elected. He was a native of Ohio where he had grown up in a log cabin. He became a lawyer, and after filling a professorship at Hiram College, Ohio, he entered the Union army, attaining the rank



JAMES A. GARFIELD

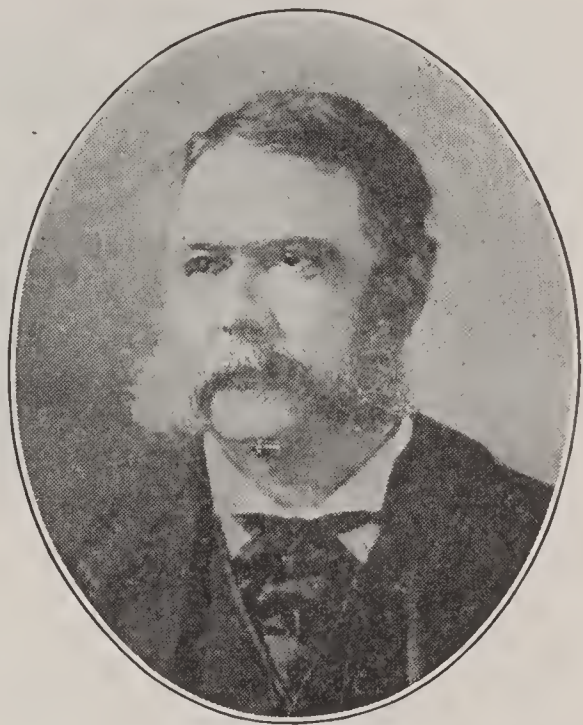
of major-general. This position he resigned to serve as representative in the House of Representatives until 1880, when he was elected Senator. Before the time of entering upon his duties as Senator, he was, however, elected President. While in public life he exhibited administrative talent of high order.

468. Garfield Is Assassinated. Although the country was at peace and general prosperity prevailed at the beginning of Garfield's administration, the new President became at once involved in factional troubles due

to the Spoils System. He had been in office only four months when he was shot (July 2, 1881) by a disappointed office-seeker, Charles Guiteau. He died September 19, mourned by the whole nation.

469. Arthur Assumes the Office. Vice-president Chester A. Arthur (1830-1886) took the presidential oath at his home in New York only a few hours after Garfield's death. The new President was a native of Vermont. He became a lawyer, and took part in the Civil War, but he was little known by the country outside of New York. Fears were entertained that the consequences which followed the succession of Vice-presidents Tyler and Johnson might be repeated. But, fortunately, Arthur proved himself an able, fearless, and impartial executive.

470. The Civil Service Reform Act—The Pendleton Act. The Spoils System had been producing its evil results for more than half a century, and a great many political scandals could be traced directly to it. Appointments to Federal positions had been made as rewards to political workers regardless of their ability or training. In 1883 Congress passed the Pendleton Civil Service Act which provided that applicants for certain public offices should be examined by civil service examiners appointed by the President, and that appointments and promotions should be made from the lists of those who had passed the examinations. President Arthur applied this system at once to the departments at Washington and to all custom houses and post offices where more than fifty clerks were employed. It has since been extended to other offices.



CHESTER A. ARTHUR

471. Centennials. In 1881 the nation celebrated by a great naval display, the hundredth anniversary of the British surrender (1781) at Yorktown. During the same year a large cotton exhibition was held at Atlanta, Georgia, to mark the

hundredth anniversary of the first exportation of cotton. In 1884 another and much greater cotton exhibition was held at New Orleans, the largest cotton market in America. These exhibitions revealed the vast changes which had taken place in the South since the close of the Civil War. A new South, with thousands of manufacturing and mining enterprises and thousands of miles of railroads, had developed. Where in 1784 one bale of cotton was exported from Charleston, South Carolina, millions of bales were now exported. The white man



PICKING COTTON

took part with the black in common labor and trade enterprises, while the freedman now received compensation for his labor and enjoyed a home of his own. Great numbers of schools were maintained for the blacks and whites, though the two races strictly

avoided, as is still the case, all social intercourse.

472. Restriction of Chinese Immigration. Congress had repeatedly attempted, without success, to exclude the Chinese from the country. In 1880 a treaty was negotiated with the Chinese government by which Chinese immigration might be stopped by the United States. Consequently, in 1882 Congress passed an act forbidding Chinese immigration for a period of ten years. This enactment was soon followed by another and more stringent law in 1885.

473. The Brooklyn Bridge. One of the events during Arthur's administration which proved the rapid progress of the country was the completion (1883) of the great Brooklyn suspension bridge. It spanned the East River, connecting New York City

and Brooklyn. In design and construction this bridge is a most stupendous engineering work.

Questions

1. How did Arthur become president? Review the Spoils System in connection with Andrew Jackson. How did this system lead to the death of Garfield? How was the system reformed?
2. What did the Centennials in the South show?
3. Try to find out why the Chinese immigration was restricted.

Theme Topics

1. Describe a cotton-picking scene in the South. (See picture on page 358.)
2. Write a brief theme on either Garfield or Arthur.

CHAPTER XXXVI

GROVER CLEVELAND'S ADMINISTRATION

DEMOCRAT—1885-1889

474. Cleveland Elected. At the election of 1884 the Democrats for the first time since 1856 were victorious. Grover Cleveland (1837-1908) was elected. He was a native of New Jersey, had studied law, and entered upon its practice at Buffalo, New York. After serving in many local offices, he became the



GROVER CLEVELAND

governor of the state (1883). Cleveland's administration as President was characterized by singleness of purpose, economy of management, and the exercise of good judgment in public affairs. He adhered strictly to the regulations governing the Civil Service, although under the law he was not relieved from making a large number of appointments.

475. The Presidential Succession Law. In 1886 Congress enacted the Presidential Succession Law, which provides for succession to the presidency in case of the death or disability

of both the president and the vice-president. According to this law the members of the Cabinet, in the order of the creation of their offices, act as president until the disability is removed

or a new president has been elected. The various departments were created in the following order:

- (1) Secretary of State, 1789;
- (2) Secretary of War, 1789;
- (3) Secretary of the Treasury, 1789;
- (4) Attorney-General, 1789;
- (5) Postmaster-General, 1789;
- (6) Secretary of the Navy, 1798;
- (7) Secretary of the Interior, 1849;
- (8) Secretary of Agriculture, 1889;
- (9) Secretary of Commerce and Labor, 1903;
- (10) Secretary of Labor, 1913 (Labor being then made a separate department).



UNITED STATES BATTLESHIP "TEXAS"

476. Improvement of the Navy. During the twenty years succeeding the Civil War our navy had been neglected and had become worthless. The country now felt the need of protection for our commerce and for our coasts. Accordingly, Congress (1883) authorized the building of four steel cruisers within a period of eight years at an expenditure of thirty million dollars. This was the beginning of our present splendid navy.

477. The Interstate Commerce Law. The railroads of the United States, which were doing much toward developing the resources of the country, and which had originally been built in short lines, were being rapidly consolidated into large systems passing through several states. The railroad companies made rates which, though not too high, were not uniform. In many instances low freight rates were granted to certain large shippers and to distant cities, while higher rates were collected from nearer cities and smaller shippers. Naturally, this discrimination built up some manufacturers and ruined others.

To remedy these abuses, Congress enacted (1887) the Interstate Commerce Law, which provided that railroad charges must be just and reasonable, and that there be no unjust discrimination between persons or localities. The Interstate Commerce Commission, consisting first of five persons, later of seven, was appointed to investigate and report violations of the Act.

478. Repeal of the Tenure of Office Act—Australian Ballot System. During this administration the Tenure of Office Act which served as a pretext for the impeachment of President Johnson was repealed (1887).

Frauds and abuses in election led the public to demand a reform in methods of voting. Many of the states adopted the Australian ballot method, so called because it was first perfected in Australia. By this system the polling of votes is secret, and the ballot used is an official one furnished by the government. In the course of a few years (1888-1892) it found favor in nearly all the states.

479. Anarchist Movement. The year 1886 became noted for its many strikes and riots, the chief centers of which were St. Louis and Chicago. The greatest of these occurred in Chicago, where some forty thousand men left their employment. The strikers marched through the streets, and soon factories and workshops came to a stop. Several hundred persons, led by a band of anarchists, gathered at Haymarket Square and

threatened a serious riot. When the police ordered the ring-leaders to disperse, someone threw a dynamite bomb into the crowd, killing seven policemen and wounding many others. Three of the leaders were executed, two received sentences of life imprisonment, and one escaped sentence by suicide.

480. The Statue of Liberty. An immense statue of bronze, representing "Liberty Enlightening the World," in the form



THE STATUE OF LIBERTY

of a woman holding aloft a torch, was unveiled on Bedloe's Island (1886) in the harbor of New York. This statue by the famous French sculptor Bartholdi is one hundred fifty-one feet high. It rests on a stone pedestal one hundred fifty-five feet high. The statue, erected by subscription in France, was presented to the United States in commemoration of the Declaration of Independence.

481. Death of Eminent Men. This administration witnessed the death of a number of distinguished men, among whom may be mentioned: The Venerable Cardinal McCloskey (1885); (Archbishop Gibbons of Baltimore was chosen by the reigning Pontiff, Leo XIII, to succeed the deceased cardinal); ex-President Grant (1885); General G. B. McClellan (1885); General Philip Sheridan (1888).

482. The Mills Tariff Bill. During the Civil War the tariff was considerably increased to raise sufficient revenue to maintain the army and navy. This high tariff had not been reduced. By 1887 the government had paid all the national debt which was then due and had a large surplus in the Treasury. It was generally thought unwise to keep this money from circulation. President Cleveland, in his annual message, recommended that the surplus be reduced by decreasing the tariff. The Mills Bill, providing for a reduction in the tariff, was passed in the House, but it was defeated in the Senate.

The tariff question became the main issue in the campaign of 1888. The Democrats stood for tariff for revenue only, while the Republicans demanded a high tariff for the protection of American manufactures.

Questions

1. What was the Presidential Succession Law? What was done during Cleveland's administration to improve the navy?
2. Why was it found necessary to pass the Interstate Commerce Law? Why was the Australian ballot method adopted?
3. Who designed the Statue of Liberty? Who presented it to the United States, and what does it commemorate?
4. Describe the Chicago Riot.
5. What is meant by a tariff for revenue? A high protective tariff?
6. Who was chosen to succeed The Venerable Cardinal McCloskey?

Theme Topics

1. Describe the Australian ballot system. (See the encyclopedia for further information.)
2. Describe the Statue of Liberty.

CHAPTER XXXVII

BENJAMIN HARRISON'S ADMINISTRATION

REPUBLICAN—1889-1893

483. Harrison Elected. At the election of 1888, Benjamin Harrison, the candidate of the Republican party, was chosen President. At this election the Australian ballot was used for the first time in the choice of presidential electors.

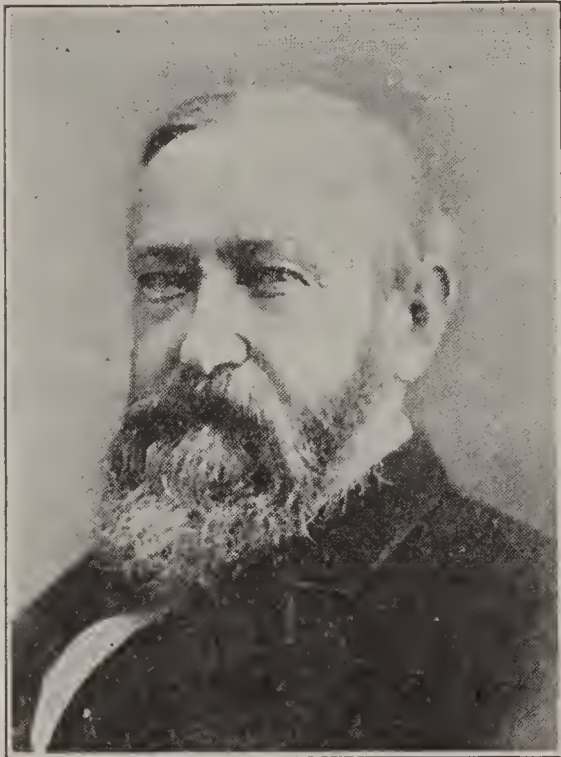
Benjamin Harrison (1833-1901) was a native of Ohio. He won distinction as a lawyer, rose to the rank of brigadier-general in the Civil War, and was a United States Senator (1881-1887). As President, he surrounded himself by an able Cabinet, and his administration was characterized by general progress and a firm defense of American interests in foreign affairs.

484. Important Legislation. The Republicans not only succeeded in the election of the President, but they also secured control of both Houses of Congress. They immediately proceeded to carry out their ideas in three important measures (1890):

- (a) The Dependent Pension Bill, which provided for a reduction of the surplus in the Treasury by largely increasing the number of Union soldiers receiving pensions,
- (b) The McKinley Bill, which raised the tariff for protective purposes, but authorized the President to make reciprocity agreements with others nation—that is, certain articles were allowed free entry into the country from such nations as might agree on similar concessions to the United States:
- (c) The Sherman Act, which modified the Bland-Allison Bill by providing that the government purchase four and

one-half million ounces of silver bullion each month, pay for it in treasury notes which were a legal tender for all debts, and which were redeemable in gold or silver coin, keep it in the Treasury, and issue silver certificates to the value of the bullion.

485. The Pan-American Congress. During Harrison's administration a Pan-American Congress, composed of sixty-six



BENJAMIN HARRISON

delegates from the Northern, Southern, and Central American Republics, assembled (1889) in Washington in answer to an invitation by the United States. Questions of closer business relations and better means of communication were discussed. Secretary Blaine, as president of the conference, exercised great influence. A Bureau of American Republics was established for the prompt collection and distribution of commercial information concerning the Latin American countries, and a resolution was passed recommending

that the republics of North, South, and Central America settle by arbitration all disputes and difficulties that might arise among them.

486. Trouble with Italy. In New Orleans (1891), some Italians were brought to trial for the murder of the chief of police, but in spite of positive evidence were acquitted. The people, believing that the jury had been bribed or intimidated, broke into the jail and put to death some of the Italians. Three of these men were citizens of Italy, and that country demanded an indemnity. Our government finally agreed to pay twenty-five thousand dollars toward the support of the families of

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those who had been killed. Thus peaceful relations with Italy were restored.

487. Trouble with Chile. Another quite complicated affair occurred in Chile (1891). On the occasion of a civil war in that country, our minister failed to preserve neutrality. An angered Chilean mob attacked a number of American sailors, killing two and wounding eighteen. The United States sternly demanded satisfaction, whereupon Chile, disavowing the act, promptly offered and paid an indemnity of seventy-five thousand dollars to the families of the murdered and wounded.

In the negotiations with Italy and Chile, Blaine, the able Secretary of State, showed great skill and prudence.

488. The Seal Fishery Question. After the purchase of Alaska (1867) the United States assumed entire control of the seal fisheries in Bering Sea. England, who claimed that the jurisdiction of the United States did not extend beyond a three-mile limit, encouraged the Canadians in sealing outside of that boundary. Matters were brought to a crisis when our cruisers began to attack and confiscate (1886) the Canadian seal vessels. The trouble was adjusted by a board of arbitrators, who met at Paris (1893). This board decided that the United States had no jurisdiction over the seal fisheries beyond the three-mile limit, but that both nations might join in protecting the seals in the open water to prevent their extermination. This adjustment of the difficulty was another triumph of arbitration.

489. Oklahoma Territory Opened—Six New States Admitted. Shortly after Harrison's inauguration, the United States purchased Oklahoma, which then formed a part of Indian Territory, from the Creek and Seminole Indians. To prevent unlawful speculation, the President issued a proclamation forbidding entrance into the territory before noon of April 12, 1889. About fifty thousand people called "boomers" gathered on the border, and at the first blast of the bugle rushed into the "promised land." Then began the scramble for selecting lands from the two million acres which were thrown open to

settlement. Cities and towns and a new commonwealth were created in a wilderness within twenty-four hours.

Four states entered the Union in 1889—North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, and Washington. Two entered in 1890—Idaho and Wyoming.

490. Two Centennials. The hundredth anniversary of the beginning of our government under the Constitution and the inauguration of Washington was commemorated by a grand



THE OPENING OF OKLAHOMA

three days' celebration in New York City (April, 1889). Commemorative exercises were held at the Sub-Treasury Building on Wall Street, which occupies the site of Old Federal Hall where Washington took the presidential oath. At the close of the exercises, the Most Reverend Archbishop Corrigan of New York gave his blessing to the assembled multitudes.

In November of the Constitutional Centennial (1889), the Catholic Church of America also celebrated the first centenary anniversary of the establishment of its hierarchy.

491. The First Catholic Lay Congress. The celebration of the centennials of the inauguration of Washington as the first President of the nation, and the installment of the Very Reverend Father Carroll as first Bishop of the United States, were marked also by the meeting of the first Catholic Lay Congress in the United States. It was composed of fifteen hundred delegates from the several dioceses, including men of various nationalities, as well as Indians and negroes—all of whom joined in perfect harmony for the common purposes of the occasion which were: increased activity on the part of the laity in aid of the clergy; a declaration of views on the important Catholic questions of the hour; and the assistance of the poor.

492. Other Events. Congress enacted (1891) an international copyright law which gave copyright protection to authors of such nations as would extend the like privilege to American authors.

The city of Johnstown and a number of neighboring villages in western Pennsylvania suffered an appalling disaster on May 1, 1899. A dam in the Conemaugh River broke, and the flood swept villages and towns before it. Thousands of lives were lost, and millions of dollars' worth of property was destroyed.

Questions

1. What was the purpose of each of the following: Dependent Pension Bill; McKinley Bill; Sherman Act? What were the advantages to the Latin-American states and to the United States of the Pan-American Congress? During Harrison's administration how did a system of arbitration help to save us from war?

2. How was Oklahoma secured and settled?
3. Describe the first Catholic Lay Congress.

Theme Topics

1. In a theme of two paragraphs describe the opening of Oklahoma. (See picture on page 368.)

2. Imagine that a family made homeless by the Johnstown flood has taken refuge in your home. Write a brief theme telling what you would do for their relief.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

GROVER CLEVELAND'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION

DEMOCRAT—1893-1897

493. Cleveland Elected. The result of the election of 1892 was a sweeping victory for the Democratic party, which elected both the President and Congress. Grover Cleveland was chosen President.

494. The Panic of 1893. When Cleveland began his second administration, the country was enjoying unusual prosperity, but the pension, tariff, and monetary legislation of the previous presidency had greatly disturbed the financial world. Scarcely had the Democratic administration begun when a disastrous panic swept over the country. Banks, business houses, and individuals could not pay their debts. Thousands of laborers were thrown out of work, resulting in great distress among the poorer classes. Strikes were common, and the number of vagrants increased enormously.

The panic was brought about in part by widespread speculation and in part by the serious condition of financial affairs. The value of silver had gradually depreciated, but the government, according to the provisions of the Sherman Act, paid for it in notes redeemable in gold. Thus, the amount of gold in the treasury was steadily decreasing, and the people began to fear that the government might decide to redeem its notes in silver instead of in gold. Hence, there was widespread lack of confidence which increased the financial difficulties. The banks, unable to meet the demands upon them, failed in large numbers. Business men, finding it impossible to borrow money, had to suspend work; this meant the discharge of laborers and consequent hard times.

495. The Repeal of the Sherman Act. In order to stop the drain upon the gold in the treasury, Cleveland summoned a special session of Congress, which he advised to repeal the Sherman Act. After long and exciting opposition the Act was repealed (November, 1893). The decline in the value of silver closed the silver mines of the West, throwing thousands of miners out of employment.

496. The Wilson Tariff Act. The Democrats having won the election on the tariff issue, set about revising the tariff by passing the Wilson Bill (1893). This bill lowered the revenue rate of the McKinley Act from about fifty per cent to nearly thirty-seven per cent, and placed many articles on the free list.

The Democratic reduction of the tariff was made at the wrong juncture of affairs. The income of the government was insufficient to cover its current expenses, and much of the gold in the national treasury passed into foreign hands in payment of bonds offered for redemption. Americans throughout the country began to hoard their gold. Hence, to meet demands, the government was obliged to issue new bonds, that is, to borrow money. Before the close of Cleveland's presidency the national debt had been increased about two hundred fifty million dollars. Under such conditions the Wilson Tariff was naturally unpopular.

497. The Hawaiian Revolution. Before the expiration of Harrison's administration the natives of Hawaii, incited by American seamen, and especially by our minister to the islands, rose in rebellion against their queen, Liliuokalani. After deposing her in 1893, the natives set up a provisional government consisting largely of Americans, and applied to the United States for annexation. This action was opposed in the Senate on the plea that the people of Hawaii had not been fairly consulted. When Cleveland succeeded to the presidency, the matter was still pending. He investigated the state of affairs, and, finding that the Americans had violated Washington's policy by taking sides in the rebellion, opposed the annexation

of the islands. His attempt, however, to restore the Queen to power failed. The independent republic which the Hawaiians organized (1894) continued until the United States (1898) finally took control of Hawaii. The islands were organized into the Territory of Hawaii in 1900.

Catholicity has made considerable progress in Hawaii. There are many churches and schools in charge of Religious Priests and



GROUPS OF OAHU COLLEGE, HONOLULU, HAWAII

Sisters. Besides the work of education, Catholic charity has also taken upon itself the care of the lepers, for whom the Hawaiian government set apart the island of Molokai. Here labored the heroic and self-sacrificing Father Damien, the apostle of the lepers, and here his devoted successors

still labor. Robert Louis Stevenson, who visited Hawaii and met Father Damien in 1890, has written a beautiful tribute to him.

498. The Monroe Doctrine and Venezuela. A boundary dispute of long standing between Venezuela and British Guiana induced the President to apply the Monroe Doctrine. Great Britain, who was apparently trying to secure territory from Venezuela not rightfully belonging to her, refused both the appeal of Venezuela and the advice of the United States to settle affairs by arbitration. For a while war seemed imminent. Cleveland in a special message to Congress declared that the Monroe Doctrine must be respected and that the United States was bound to resist in every possible manner the encroachments of Great Britain on Venezuela. Congress,

forgetting its party differences, unanimously supported the President. England finally agreed to arbitration, and matters were peaceably adjusted.

499. Other Measures of Cleveland's Administration. Congress repealed (1894) the Force Bill, which had been passed in 1870.

Cleveland extended the Civil Service Law, placing many more Federal officials under the examination system.

Utah was admitted (1896) as the forty-fifth state, after the adoption of a state constitution prohibiting polygamy.

500. World's Columbian Exposition. During Cleveland's second administration, the World's Columbian Exposition was held (1893) in Chicago. It commemorated the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America by Columbus, and surpassed all previous expositions of the kind in completeness and magnificence. The chief object of this fair, which was to give evidence of the great progress in civilization during the past four centuries, was most successfully accomplished. All the states and the leading foreign nations were represented by special palaces in the "White City," as the group of exposition buildings was called.

501. Strikes—Riots—Boycotts. Great panics lead to strikes and vagrancy. Such was the case after the panic of 1893. A horse-dealer named Coxey gathered a so-called "industrial army," composed of the unemployed of all classes. This "army" began its march from Ohio to Washington to demand relief from the government. Similar "armies" set out from Texas and the Pacific states. They managed to reach the national capital, but they achieved nothing and soon disbanded.

Several thousand workmen employed by the Pullman Car Company, at Pullman, near Chicago, struck for higher wages, and boycotts occurred on more than twenty railroads running out of Chicago. The employees of these railroads struck in order to prevent the use of Pullman cars until the company should raise the wages of their laborers. Business was sus-

pended in Chicago, and travel became dangerous. Trade and industry were thrown into confusion, and much railroad property destroyed. The money losses amounted to not less than seven million dollars. After a number of weeks, a force combined of United States troops and state militia finally restored order.

502. The Bryan-McKinley Campaign. One of the most exciting campaigns in our recent history occurred in 1896. It was generally believed that the hard times during Cleveland's administration were caused chiefly by the repeal of the Sherman Act, and by the low average of the protective tariff provided for by the Wilson Act. Consequently, when the time of election drew near, it became evident that the main issues of the campaign would be the tariff and silver coinage.

The Republican national convention nominated William McKinley of Ohio on a platform which declared for protection and reciprocity, and rejected the free coinage of silver, except by international agreement. The Democrats named William Jennings Bryan of Nebraska on a platform demanding an unlimited coinage of silver and gold at a ratio of sixteen to one. The People's party, which favored free silver, accepted the presidential nominee of the Democrats. Some Democrats, believing in the gold standard, nominated J. M. Palmer of Illinois.

Questions

1. What caused the Panic of 1893? What did the Wilson Bill provide? What was the result?
2. Explain the manner in which Hawaii came under the control of the United States.
3. What was the Venezuela Affair?
4. What did the Columbian Exposition commemorate? Its object?
5. What was the object of Coxey's Army? What did it accomplish?
6. What is meant by the statement that the Democratic platform demanded coined silver at the ratio of 16 to 1? For what did the Republicans stand?

Theme Topic

The "White City."

CHAPTER XXXIX

WILLIAM MCKINLEY'S ADMINISTRATION

REPUBLICAN—1897-1901

503. McKinley Elected. At the election of 1896, William McKinley (1843-1901) was elected. He was a native of Ohio. In the Civil War he rose to the rank of major; later he served as congressman from his state. Well educated, gentle, and of dignified character, he endeared himself to the people by his blameless private life, rare tact, and high executive ability. He was a keen and far-sighted politician who knew how to win the esteem and respect of his opponents. His presidential administration, though successful on the whole, was overshadowed by issues resulting from the Spanish War and the acquisition of outlying possessions.

504. The Dingley Tariff. A few days after his inauguration President McKinley called an extra session of Congress to consider the revision of the tariff. As a result, the Dingley Tariff Bill was passed after much opposition from the Senate (1897). This act, in accordance with the policy of the party in power, raised the duties to the highest average known in our history (to over fifty per cent). Free



WILLIAM MCKINLEY

trade on articles not manufactured in our country was again provided for.

THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR

505. Cuban Revolts. In Cuba a deadly hatred had developed between the natives and the Spaniards. This was caused by the oppressive rule which had deprived the Cubans of political and civil liberty, and had burdened them with taxation. The Cubans had tried several times to throw off the foreign yoke, but they had been unsuccessful. In 1895 a new revolt was organized. Three successive governors-general, Campos, Weyler, and Blanco, were unable to suppress the insurrection, which was secretly supported by American money and Cuban filibustering expeditions equipped in American harbors.

The methods of the Spanish authorities in putting down the rebellion were barbarous and resulted in widespread desolation. The country people were compelled to leave their homes and move to the nearest towns, where thousands died of starvation and disease. Congress voted that supplies be forwarded to the suffering Cubans, and members of the Red Cross Society, led by Clara Barton, went to Cuba to relieve distress.

506. Self-Government in Cuba. The sympathy of the United States was naturally with the Cubans: many Americans resided in Cuba; American capital was invested there, and our commerce with the island amounted to several million dollars a year. Hence, President McKinley undertook by diplomacy to bring Spain and the Cubans to agree upon terms of peace.

507. The Explosion of the Maine. The United States government was watching Cuban affairs with intense interest, when, on the night of February 15, 1898, a terrific explosion destroyed the United States battleship *Maine* in Havana harbor. Two officers and two hundred sixty-six sailors went down with the vessel. A naval court of inquiry, appointed by the President, reported that the disaster was in no way due to negligence on the part of the officers or members of the crew of the *Maine*, and

that there was no evidence to suggest that the Spanish government or any of her officials were concerned in the matter.

Sensationalists at once made use of the event to inflame the minds of the people against Spain, and the probability of peace or war between this country and the United States was at once openly discussed.

In 1911 the *Maine* was raised at great expense for the purpose of ascertaining whether it was destroyed by a torpedo



THE "MAINE" ENTERING HAVANA HARBOR

mine from without or by an explosion from within. Upon investigation, an official statement was made that the *Maine* was first blown up from without, although the explosion of her own magazines a moment later caused her complete destruction. Notwithstanding the official but interested report of the government, an opinion, supported by weighty marine authority, is still common that the explosion was caused by an overheated magazine beneath the decks of the *Maine*.

508. Summary of Causes—Declaration of War. The Spanish-American War was of short duration (April 25, 1898-De-

cember 10, 1898). Its causes may be briefly summed up as follows:

Remote—The long existing desire in the United States that Spanish rule in Cuba be ended. The opportunity to bring this about was seen in the uprisings, rebellions, and hardships occasioned by the arbitrary rule of the Spanish captains-general.

Immediate—A series of resolutions passed by both Houses of Congress (April 19, anniversary of Lexington and Concord) which declared: that the Cubans ought to be free and independent; that Spain must withdraw her troops from the island, and that the President be authorized to use the army and navy of the United States to compel Spain to relinquish her authority over Cuba. By another clause of the resolution, the United States promised to leave the government of the island to its people after its independence was achieved.

Spain was given five days to consider the resolutions. She replied by recalling her minister at Washington and dismissing the American minister from Madrid. As this action was equivalent to a declaration of war, Congress declared that war existed (April 25, 1898). The President called for two hundred thousand volunteers. Congress promptly appropriated fifty million dollars toward carrying on the war. A part of the American fleet under acting Rear Admiral Sampson was sent to blockade Havana; another part, under Commodore Winfield Scott Schley, was organized into a "flying squadron" to search for a Spanish fleet in command of Admiral Cervera, which was reported to have left the Cape Verde Islands.

509. Cervera's Fleet in Santiago Harbor. No one knew whether Cervera was bound for Cuba or whether he intended to surprise the cities on our eastern coast. Commodore Schley finally discovered the fleet in Santiago harbor. This harbor, known as "Cloverleaf Bay," opens through a narrow channel into the ocean. Since it was strongly fortified and well laid with mines, it would have been unwise for an attacking fleet to enter it. Sampson and Schley, placing all their available vessels

about the entrance of Santiago harbor, exercised a vigilant watch over Cervera's fleet.

510. Hobson's Exploit. As it was feared that Cervera's fleet might by some means escape in spite of the vigilance of Sampson and Schley, Lieutenant Richmond Hobson volunteered to close the harbor by sinking the coaling vessel *Merrimac* in the entrance to the harbor. With six brave companions, in the face of a terrific fire from the Spanish batteries, he succeeded in steaming the collier to a narrow part of the channel, where he sank it. The vessel, however, did not block the entrance. Hobson and his men, who had thrown themselves into the water, were captured by Cervera, but were kindly treated by him in consideration of their bravery.

511. The Battle of Manila. Before a decisive engagement occurred at Cuba, the most far-reaching event of the war took place in the Philippine Islands. Commodore George Dewey, commanding an American fleet, which was then at anchor in Hong-Kong harbor, was ordered to attack the Spanish fleet in the Philippines. Setting sail immediately, on Sunday morning, May 1, he entered Manila Bay, the chief harbor of the islands. After a masterly attack, he destroyed the enemy's fleet of eleven vessels. The Spanish sustained a heavy loss of life, while the American fleet lost neither a single life nor ship. Dewey proceeded to blockade the city of Manila, where he awaited the arrival of General Merritt with twenty thousand troops from San Francisco. A few weeks later (August 13) Manila and the islands surrendered. President McKinley appointed Dewey rear admiral, and later he was given the highest rank in the navy—that of admiral—while Commodores Sampson and Schley were made rear admirals.

512. The Capture of Santiago—Destruction of Cervera's Fleet. Meantime, General W. R. Shafter with an army of eighteen thousand men had landed at a point a few miles distant from Santiago to coöperate with Captain Sampson in the capture of the city. The outer line of defense at El Caney and

San Juan was taken by assault (July 1), and the Spanish troops driven into Santiago, which was then practically at the mercy of the American army. Cervera sought safety by making a wild dash out of the harbor on the morning of July 2. The Americans gave chase with deadly fire. In a wild running fight every vessel of the Spanish fleet was either captured or sunk. The American vessels suffered little damage. Some six hundred Spaniards were killed or wounded and one thousand taken prisoners, while the Americans had but one man killed and three wounded. The presence of General Shafter's army before the city of Santiago and the loss of Cervera's fleet convinced the Spanish of the uselessness of further resistance, and a few days later their commander, Toral, surrendered (July 14).

General Shafter's force was composed chiefly of regular soldiers, but included as volunteers a regiment of "Rough Riders," known as "The First Regiment of United States Volunteer Cavalry," who fought on foot. Leonard Wood was appointed colonel, and Theodore Roosevelt, who resigned his position as Assistant Secretary of the Navy for the purpose, was made lieutenant colonel.

513. Miles in Porto Rico—Treaty of Peace. Immediately after the destruction of Cervera's fleet, General Nelson A. Miles, then at the head of the army of the United States, proceeded to Porto Rico, where he took possession of several towns with little difficulty. Hostilities were stopped suddenly, however (August 11, 1898), by news from Washington that an armistice had been signed by the two nations. This ended the fighting. Later Spain agreed to free Cuba and to cede Porto Rico and one of the Ladrone islands as a war indemnity. By the treaty which was signed later this was confirmed and the Philippine Islands were ceded to the United States for twenty million dollars.

514. Results of the War—Reconstruction of Cuba and Porto Rico. The Spanish-American war, which cost the United States

one hundred thirty million dollars and the loss of two hundred ninety-five men killed in battle, ended Spanish rule in the Western Hemisphere.

The United States occupied the island of Cuba, January 1, 1899, and appointed a military governor, pending the organization of a native government. This was established when Don Tomas Estrada Palma was inaugurated as president



HUTS IN PORTO RICO

(May 20, 1902). With this event Cuba became a republic under the protection of the United States, which retained the right of a general supervision of the foreign affairs of the island. Porto Rico, as one of the spoils of the war, was organized as a United States dependency under a territorial form of government (May, 1900).

With the American occupation of Cuba, annual payments by the government to the Church for religious purposes ceased. The long discussion and investigation which ensued because of

this ended in an adjustment, by a judicial commission (1902), in favor of the claims of the Church.

515. War Continues in the Philippines—Outcome. At the time of American occupancy of the Philippines, the natives of the islands, under the leadership of Emilio Aguinaldo, were in revolt against Spain, and had set up a revolutionary government. They welcomed and aided the American troops, but upon finding that independence was denied them at the close of the war, they took up arms against the Americans. Several years of bush or guerrilla fighting followed. A great many natives were killed, and United States troops finally occupied nearly all of the island of Luzon; Aguinaldo was captured and soon after swore allegiance to the United States. With this event hostilities ceased, and President McKinley (July 4, 1899) declared by proclamation the restoration of peace in the Philippines and extended a general amnesty to the former insurgents. William Howard Taft was then appointed governor of the islands, and during his term of office an honest and stable government was established.

In the Philippines there had been the strictest union of Church and State for more than three centuries, a union which naturally brought difficulties under the new American government. The most important problem was that of the religious orders and their relation to the native races. The cry for their banishment and spoliation could not be listened to, since there were some five million Catholics dependent on their ministrations. The record of the friars was a glorious one, and to their rule the natives of the island owed their exceptional prosperity. These friars had transformed them from a barbarous Malay race into a Christian people.

At the beginning of the American occupation of the islands, a question arose over the ownership of large tracts of land that had come into the possession of the friars. Since this was a matter that could not fittingly be settled by the Amer-

ican forces in the Philippines, Theodore Roosevelt, who had become President of the United States, finally entrusted Governor Taft of the Philippines with a mission to the Vatican. In the Eternal City negotiations were entered into between Governor Taft and a commission of five Cardinals, and a mutual understanding was reached between the Vatican and the American government regarding the management of Philippine affairs and ownership of the friars' land.

516. International Peace Conference. In response to an invitation by the Russian Czar to an international conference, all the principal nations of the world sent (1899) prominent delegates to The Hague, in Holland. The paramount object of this congress was the consideration and adoption of some method whereby international differences might be settled by arbitration rather than by war. The crowning act of the convention was the establishment of an International Court of Arbitration at The Hague, in which fifteen of the world's foremost nations were represented.

517. The Settlement of the Samoan Trouble—Tutuila. The United States, Great Britain, and Germany assumed (1889) the rule of the Samoan Islands by joint agreement. By a final treaty (1899), Great Britain relinquished her interests in the Samoan group, and the islands were divided between Germany and the United States. Four of them, including Tutuila, the largest of the group, and Pango Pango, which had the best harbor in the Pacific, were allotted to the United States. The islands of Christmas, Baker, Midway, Wake, and Howland, lying in the Pacific, and never claimed by any power, were also annexed to the United States. These islands, especially Tutuila, serve the United States as convenient coaling, naval, and cable stations.

518. "Open Door" with China—The Boxer Uprising. In 1900 the United States, through Secretary Hay, secured the so-called "open door" for our trade with China, by which the leading

European powers and Japan agreed to grant free trade to all the world in the Chinese ports under their control. The Chinese Empire (a republic since 1912) had for centuries excluded from its domain all foreign influence and commercial relations. The leading nations of Europe, notwithstanding, secured from China, under one or another pretext, portions of her territory, and it was not improbable that the Chinese Empire would



THE CONGRESSIONAL LIBRARY IN WASHINGTON
(Opened in 1897)

finally be partitioned among contending powers, which could at will place heavy duties on all goods entering the ports of China under their control. This would have meant the shutting out of American goods from Chinese ports.

The growing feeling of the Chinese that they had no rights that foreign nations felt bound to respect resulted in the Boxer uprising (1900). The foreign legations in Peking were besieged, and thousands of Christians were massacred. Cathedrals, churches, Chinese palaces, libraries, and temples in different parts of the

city were reduced to ashes. To put down the uprising and rescue the legations, troops were sent to Peking by Great Britain, France, Germany, Russia, Japan, and the United States. After fighting its way to Peking, the army relieved the legations and the Catholic Cathedral, in which between two and three thousand persons—priests, nuns, and fugitive Christians—had taken refuge. Difficulties with China were finally adjusted at Peking (1901) by a protocol signed by the representatives of ten foreign powers. The continuation of the “open door” with China was again assured through the efforts of Secretary Hay (1904).

Questions

1. For what did the Dingley tariff provide?
2. Why did Americans sympathize with Cuba in her revolt against Spain? What event led to the outbreak of the war? Find Manila on the map. Locate Santiago and Porto Rico. Because of this war what new territory was added to the United States? What were the results to Cuba? What did the Filipinos do when they learned that their government was to be taken over by the United States? What was the outcome? What coaling stations in the Pacific has the United States acquired?
3. Why did the United States send soldiers to China in 1900? What was the result?

Theme Topics

1. Life in a Porto Rico Hut. (See picture on page 381.)
2. Look at the picture on page 384. In a brief theme describe the Congressional Library. Some other government building, such as your local post office, may be described instead if you prefer.

CHAPTER XL

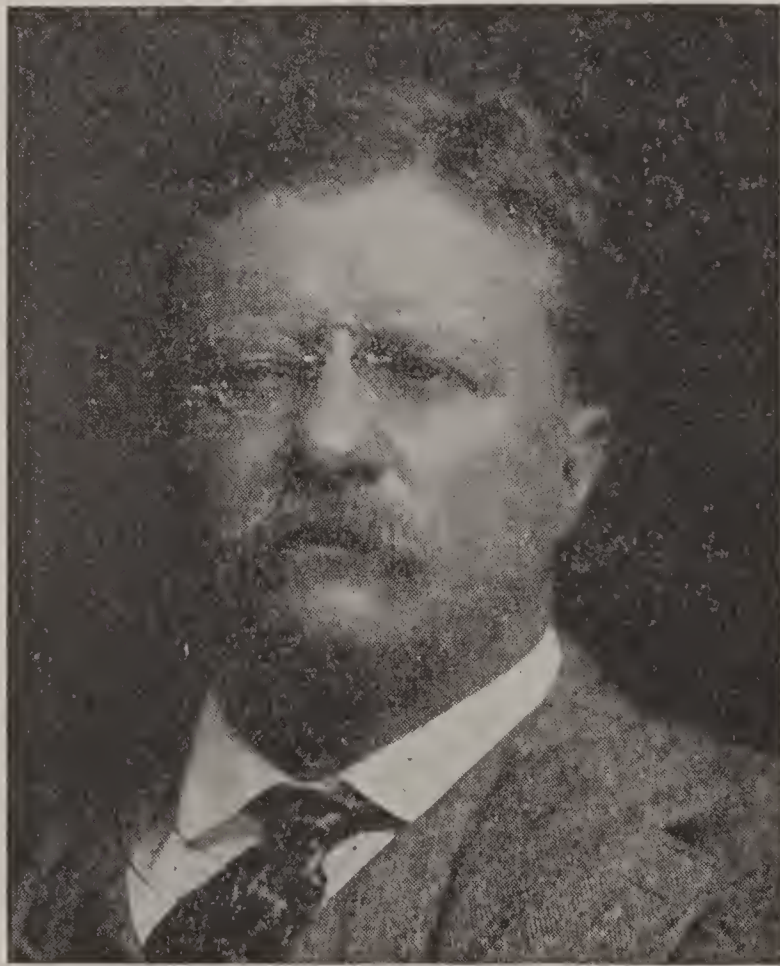
THEODORE ROOSEVELT'S ADMINISTRATION

REPUBLICAN—1901-1909

519. McKinley Is Reëlected. The campaign of 1900 resulted in the reëlection of William McKinley. Scarcely six months after his inauguration, during a public reception given

in his honor at the time of the Pan-American Exposition at Buffalo, he was assassinated. He died eight days later, our third martyred President. The tragedy shocked the whole world. The remains of President McKinley were conveyed to Washington and from there to Canton, Ohio, amidst the most touching scenes of popular grief.

520. Roosevelt Enters Upon the Presidential Office. Theodore Roosevelt, the



THEODORE ROOSEVELT

Vice-president, took the oath of office as President at Buffalo, New York, on the day of McKinley's death, and at once assumed

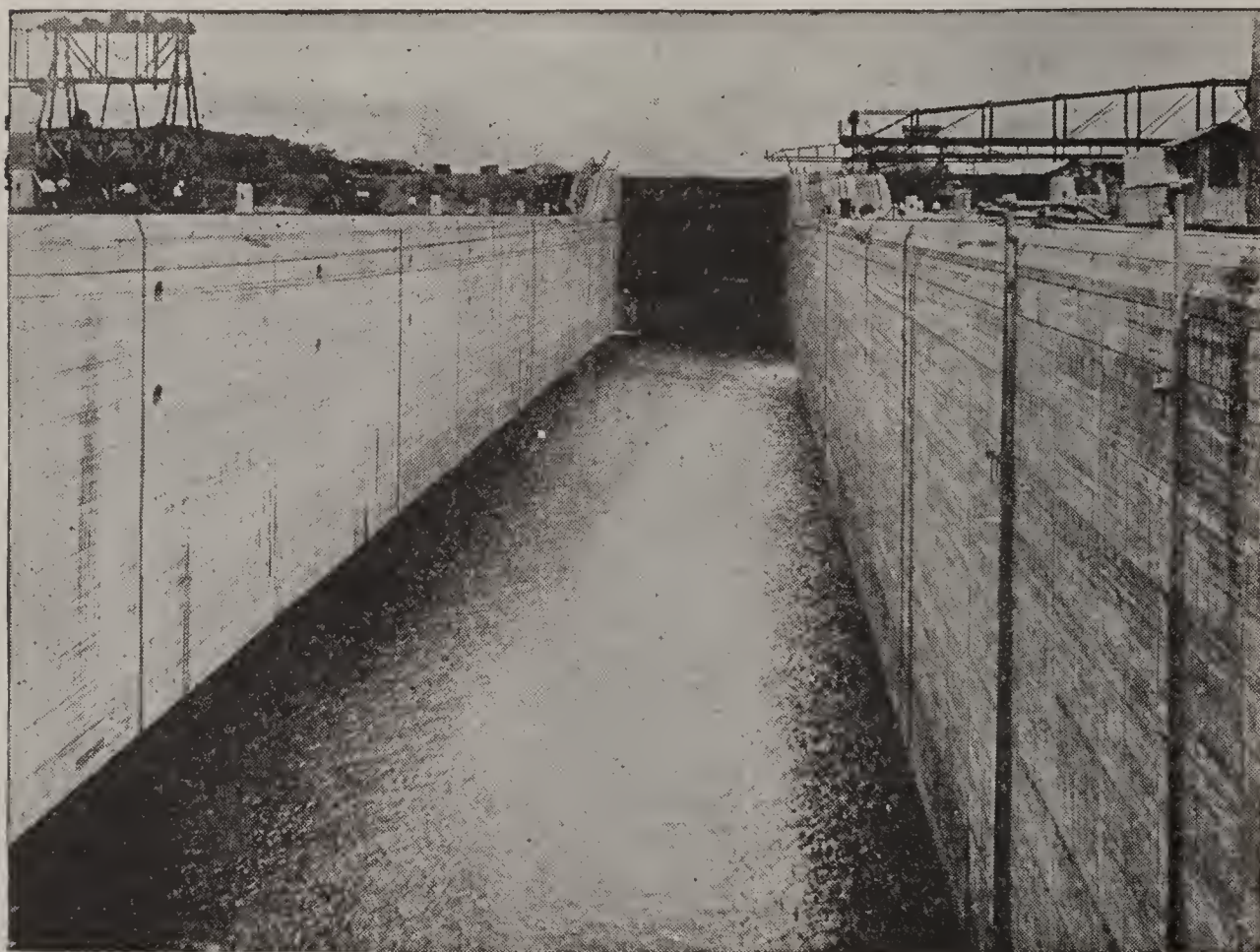
the duties of his office. He followed his predecessor's policy and, for the time, retained his Cabinet.

Theodore Roosevelt was born in New York, 1858. His family, one of the oldest in the United States, was prominent in the early history of New York under the Dutch rulers of the province. He first came to national notice at the time of the Spanish-American War. After the war he was elected governor of New York, from which position he advanced to the vice-presidency of the United States and next to the presidency. As President he was direct and vigorous in his methods of conducting the nation's business. Though his aggressiveness aroused criticism, his honest, fearless personality soon won for him great popularity, which enabled him to secure a considerable amount of good legislation, as well as to exercise great influence upon the general course of politics throughout the country. His greatest service to the country probably consists in his resolute enforcement of such laws as affected the methods of business employed by monopolies and great corporations.

521. The Anthracite Coal Strike. The most serious strike on record in American industrial history occurred (1902) in Pennsylvania. Under the leadership of John Mitchell, the president of the United Mine Workers of America, the anthracite coal miners of Pennsylvania demanded an increase of wages and a reduction in the hours of labor. When the mine owners refused to arbitrate the questions in dispute, one hundred forty-seven thousand workmen were thrown out of employment for nearly five months, while a great fuel famine paralyzed industry and occasioned much suffering throughout the country. Finally, owing to the influence of President Roosevelt, who voiced the demands of public sentiment, the trouble was adjusted by a commission which decided in favor of the miners.

522. The Isthmian Canal. The most important legislation of Roosevelt's first term was the Spooner Act (1902), which authorized Congress to construct the Panama canal. Our govern-

ment purchased the rights and property of the French Panama Canal Company for forty million dollars, promptly appropriated ten million dollars, and authorized the issuance of one hundred thirty million dollars in bonds. The great task of digging the canal, begun May 1, 1904, was completed in the summer of 1914. The canal enables our eastern ports to com-



MIRAFLORES LOCKS, PANAMA CANAL

pete on even terms with the great ports of Europe in the commercial operations with China and Japan.

The canal is about fifty miles long, measuring from deep water in the Atlantic to deep water in the Pacific. The average width of the canal is six hundred forty-nine feet. The least depth of water at any point is forty-one feet. The cost of building the Panama canal is estimated at about four hundred million dollars.

In 1881 a French company, under the leadership of Ferdinand de Lesseps, constructor of the Suez canal, had begun the construction of a canal at Panama. After several years of work at enormous expense the company became bankrupt and had to abandon the project. The fact that the warship *Oregon* was obliged to make its long journey from San Francisco around Cape Horn in order to join the Atlantic squadron during the Spanish-American War, attracted attention to the difficulty of defending the two coasts of our country, and the demand for a canal became loud. An American company had in the meantime acquired the property of the French Panama Canal Company for a total of forty million dollars and offered it for sale to the United States. Through the diplomacy of Secretary Hay, the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty (1901) was made, by which England, which had rights in the canal under a former treaty, conceded to the United States the right to own and control a future isthmian canal. A treaty with Colombia was next proposed, but this the republic rejected. Consequently, the disappointed inhabitants of Panama, considering their interest disregarded, revolted and set up a republic, independent of Colombia. This republic was promptly recognized by Congress, and a treaty was entered into which secured to our government the control of a ten-mile strip across the isthmus.

523. Irrigation of the Western Arid Lands. The western public domain included immense tracts of arid land. To irrigate and reclaim these for cultivation, Congress enacted (1902) a law which provides that the proceeds from the sale of public lands in certain western states—Arizona, California, Colorado, Idaho, Kansas, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Mexico, North Dakota, Utah, and Wyoming—be expended in the construction of irrigation works, such as dams, reservoirs, and canals. Thus vast regions of hitherto useless lands were made productive and available for settlers.

524. Three National Anniversary Celebrations. The one-hundredth anniversary of the Louisiana Purchase was com-

memorated by a World's Exposition held at St. Louis, the metropolis of the land first visited by the illustrious La Salle. The fair was held in 1904, the year succeeding the centennial, owing to the fact that arrangements were not completed in due time. In the number and magnificence of its structures, as well as in the exhibition of the useful and the beautiful, this exposition ranked as one of the most attractive and beneficial ever held. It was attended by nearly nineteen million persons, and its cost amounted to nearly fifty million dollars.

The one-hundredth anniversary of the Lewis-Clark Expedition was celebrated (1905) by an oriental fair at Portland, Oregon, in full view of the Cascades and their snow-capped peaks. A notable feature of the fair was the extensive display made by Asiatic nations.

The three-hundredth anniversary of the settlement of Jamestown (1607) was commemorated by the Jamestown Exposition held at Norfolk, Virginia (1907). Its most notable and entertaining exhibit was the grand naval parade in which all the great nations of the world participated.

525. Election of 1904. Throughout the country there was general satisfaction with the straightforward policy and executive ability of President Roosevelt. In 1904 he was unanimously nominated by the Republican convention held in Chicago. The Democrats, in their convention in St. Louis, named Judge Alton B. Parker, of New York, as their candidate. The campaign issue was largely one of personal popularity of the candidates. Roosevelt was elected by an overwhelming majority.

526. War Between Russia and Japan. At the close of the Boxer trouble in China, the Russian government refused to withdraw the troops which it had stationed in Manchuria, China, for the protection of the Chinese Eastern Railroad. Japan, who looked upon the event as a menace to her national safety and commercial interests, declared war against Russia.

This war, which proved to be one of the most bloody engagements of modern times, threatened to involve other nations. The western nations, watching the struggle with great concern, were shocked by the frightful loss of life. Finally, through the diplomacy of Secretary Hay and President Roosevelt, commissioners from each of the warring countries met at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, and after long weeks of discussion signed a treaty of peace (1905).

527. Important Legislation. During the second term of President Roosevelt's administration, Congress enacted some important legislation: the meat inspection law; a pure food law by which manufacturers of prepared foods and drugs are forbidden to use adulterants in foods and medicines, and are required to label all food stuffs and packages so as to state exactly what they contain; the Oklahoma and Indian Territories were admitted as one state, the forty-sixth, under the name of the former, with Guthrie as its capital (in 1910, however, Oklahoma City became the capital); naturalization laws were passed, which increased the head tax on immigrants, excluded undesirable classes, and regulated more carefully the process of naturalization; a new Interstate Commerce Law was passed, which reorganized the Interstate Commerce Commission and gave it the power to fix rates, though the railroads retained the right of appeal to the courts. Railroad companies were forbidden to engage in any other business.

528. The San Francisco Disaster. A series of earthquake shocks occurred in California (1906). In San Francisco the shocks were followed by a terrible conflagration. Miles of the business part of the city were destroyed, hundreds of lives lost, and nearly two hundred thousand people made homeless. The Californians, at once beginning the work of reconstruction, erected before the end of the year many earthquake-proof and fire-proof buildings of steel, stone, brick, or concrete. Within three years a new city had been erected on the ruins of the old.

529. The Second Peace Conference. For the second time an International Peace Conference met at The Hague (1907). Twenty-one nations were represented by distinguished delegates. The principal outcome was the establishment of the International Court of Arbitration commonly known as The Hague Tribunal. Both of these conferences, in which the United States took a leading part, gave rise to the hope that the time would soon come when national disagreements would be settled by arbitration.

530. Conservation of Our Natural Resources. Of great national importance was a Congress of State Governors and other national leaders, summoned to Washington by President Roosevelt (1908) for the purpose of considering the conservation of our national resources. The aim was to devise some ways and means of preserving our forests, agricultural lands, coal mines, waterways and water power, fisheries, and game from depletion or destruction. As a people, Americans have been extremely wasteful of these natural resources of wealth, and it is now generally realized that if the waste is continued it will necessarily lead to complete exhaustion. The Congress of Governors adopted the following resolutions: that forests be conserved and increased; that necessary provisions be made to prevent erosion, or washing away of arable lands; that waters be guarded and used to the best interests of the community; that arid regions be irrigated and swamps drained, and, in general, that all sources of national wealth be sacredly preserved for the community as a whole, and no monopoly thereof be tolerated.

Included in the movement of conservation is the proposal to improve our waterways. A plan to establish a ship route between Lake Michigan and the Gulf of Mexico is especially favored.

531. The United States Naval Cruise. Another of the most noteworthy events of President Roosevelt's administration was the globe-circling voyage of a fleet of American battleships

(December 16, 1907-February 22, 1909). After a display in Hampton Roads, Virginia, the fleet of sixteen warships, in command of Rear-Admiral Evans, set out by way of South America and the Pacific coast to San Francisco; thence, westward, under Rear-Admiral Sperry, to the Hawaiian Islands, the Philippines, Japan, and China, and finally back home by way of the Indian Ocean, the Suez Canal, the Mediterranean Sea,



THE AMERICAN FLEET

and the Strait of Gibraltar. After traversing a distance of more than thirty thousand miles, the fleet arrived at Hampton Roads on February 22, 1909. This cruise is noteworthy in naval history, since it proved not only the expert seamanship of our navy, but also called into expression the friendly disposition of foreign nations and impressed upon them the strength of the American Republic.

532. Death of Leo XIII—Election and Coronation of Pius X. During the course of this administration the Catholic world mourned the death of the illustrious Pope Leo XIII. He was born at Carpineto, Italy, March 2, 1810, was elected Pope,

February 20, 1878, and died at Rome, July 20, 1903. The cardinals immediately entered into a conclave and by fifty-five out of the possible sixty votes, elected (August 4) Guiseppe (Josèph) Sarto, Pope Pius X, as the successor of Leo XIII. His coronation took place on the following Sunday, August 9, 1903.

Catholics are especially grateful to Pius X for his promotion of frequent, and even daily Holy Communion; for enforcing again the ancient law of admitting children to Holy Communion at an early age, and for his *Motu Proprio* on sacred music.

Questions

1. What was the great strike of 1902? What did the strikers want? How was the strike settled?
2. Locate the Panama Canal on the map. By whom was the first attempt made to build a canal across this strip of land? Why did America become interested in the project?
3. What is irrigation? Try to find out how irrigation is accomplished. Name states where extensive irrigation is carried on.
4. What important laws were passed during Roosevelt's administration?
5. What was the outcome of the Peace Conference at The Hague? Locate The Hague on the map.
6. What does the phrase "conservation of natural resources" mean? Find out all you can about the needless wasting of our resources.
7. What did the naval cruise do for the United States?
8. Who succeeded Pope Leo XIII?

Theme Topics

1. The Forest Rangers.
2. Trees in American History.

CHAPTER XLI

WILLIAM H. TAFT'S ADMINISTRATION

REPUBLICAN—1909-1913

533. Taft Elected. The presidential election of 1908 was a Republican victory. William H. Taft (1857-) was elected.

He was born in Ohio and was educated at Yale University. He had served as circuit court judge, president of the United States Philippine Commission, first civil governor of these islands (1901), and Secretary of War during Roosevelt's administration. The experience gained in the broad scope of his civil duties served him well in his office as President of the nation. His administration was characterized by a keen sense of justice, a sincerity of purpose, and a high sense of public duty.

534. The Payne-Aldrich Tariff. In the presidential campaign of 1908, both parties stood for tariff revision. Consequently, President Taft promptly called an extra session of Congress and, after months of heated debates, the Payne-Aldrich Tariff Bill was passed (August, 1909). This measure, like the McKinley and Dingley tariff bills, was, contrary to the expectations of the people at large, highly protective. On the whole, it prac-



WILLIAM HOWARD TAFT

tically increased their rates. A very important clause of the Payne-Aldrich Bill provided for the appointment of a Tariff Board for purposes of investigation and of serving the President as a body of advisers on the subject.

535. The Postal Savings System. Congress enacted (1910) a measure providing for the establishment of a postal savings bank system. According to this system any post office where money orders are issued may become a postal savings bank. Any person ten years of age or over may become a depositor. There is a restriction that no one can deposit more than one hundred dollars in a calendar month, or five hundred dollars altogether. Interest is paid at the rate of two per cent per annum and deposits may be withdrawn on demand. It is said that many millions of dollars which had been in hiding or needlessly expended in small amounts have been entrusted to the government, which guarantees payment and gives the depositor absolute assurance of receiving back his money.

536. Discovery of the Two Poles. After twenty years of hazardous and difficult searching for the North Pole, Commander Robert E. Peary's efforts were finally crowned with success in 1909.

Captain Roald Amundsen, a Norwegian explorer, discovered the South Pole two years later (1911).

537. The Treaty with Japan. In March, 1911, a new treaty with Japan was negotiated. The clause recognizing the American right to exclude laborers from our country, which was included in the old treaty, was omitted in the new treaty. The treaty conceded to Japan the right to adopt a high protective tariff against American and other foreign trade. It met with opposition from western senators, especially because of the omission of the anti-immigration clause. However, a statement signed by the Japanese ambassador at Washington, and added to the treaty, declared officially that the Japanese government for several years had been checking the immigration of Japanese to America.

538. Trouble with Nicaragua. During an insurrection in Nicaragua (1909-1910), two American surveyors, Canon and Groce, residing in Nicaragua, were imprisoned and shot by orders of the president, Zelaya, on charge of being adventurers fighting in the ranks of the insurgents. On receipt of the news, our government sent a number of American war ships to Nicaraguan ports. After an investigation of the affair, matters were finally peaceably adjusted.

539. Mexican Border Warfare. In 1911 Mexican insurgents headed by Francisco A. Madero revolted against President Diaz. During the course of the uprising, the rebels advanced upon the Texas and Arizona borders, and affairs became so critical that our War Department sent troops to guard the Rio Grande. President Taft warned the Mexican government and the insurgents not to endanger American lives by fighting so near the border. After months of resistance, President Diaz, seeing that the insurgents were gaining their cause, issued a manifesto of resignation. A provisional president was elected and the revolution seemed to be at an end.

540. The Newfoundland Fishery Question. The long standing disputes between the United States and Great Britain regarding the right of fishing off the coast of Newfoundland were submitted to The Hague Tribunal for arbitration (1910). Both countries submitted to the verdict, but the decision was clearly against the United States. The Tribunal conceded to Great Britain the right to make Newfoundland fishing regulations without the consent of the United States, but with the understanding that England must not violate the treaty of 1818, which gave to Americans the right to fish on the shores of British America and enter the harbors for supplies and repairs; closed to American fishermen on no-treaty coasts all bays ten miles or less between headlands; gave the American fishermen the right to enter certain bays for shelter, repairs, wood, or water, but forbade the taking, drying, or curing of fish therein; and granted the United States the liberty to take fish in the

bays, harbors, and creeks on certain parts of the southern and western coasts of Newfoundland.

541. Vacancy in the Chief Judiciary. In 1910 the United States mourned the death of Melville W. Fuller, who had been

the Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court for twenty-two years. Edward D. White was appointed his successor—the second Catholic in American history to fill that exalted position. Chief Justice White was born in Louisiana in 1845, and educated at Mount St. Mary's, Maryland, at the Jesuit College, New Orleans, and at Georgetown University. He was elected Justice of the Louisiana Supreme Court in 1878



CHIEF JUSTICE WHITE

and United States Senator in 1891. In 1894 he was appointed Justice of the United States Supreme Court by President Cleveland and in 1910 elevated to the Chief Justiceship by President Taft.

542. Two New States. New Mexico and Arizona were admitted (1912) to the Union as the forty-seventh and the forty-eighth states.

543. A Great Disaster—Destructive Floods. One of the most appalling disasters in the history of ocean traffic occurred in April, 1912. The steamer *Titantic* of the White Star Line, the

most gigantic passenger ship ever afloat, was making its first voyage across the Atlantic from Southampton to New York. While advancing at the high speed of twenty-one knots an hour, it crashed into an iceberg which ripped off the heavy steel plates from bow to midship. The water gradually filled the compartments and after some hours the great vessel, with 1347 men, 103 women, and 53 children, sank to the bottom of the Atlantic.

The flow of water from heavy rains and the melting of snows on the Rocky and Alleghany Mountains had so swollen the lower course of the Mississippi as to cause destructive floods (1912). Hundreds of lives and millions of dollars' worth of property were destroyed and thousands of persons rendered homeless.

544. Two New Cardinals. An event of particular interest to the Catholics of the United States was the creation (November, 1911) of two American Cardinals—the late John Farley, Archbishop of New York, and William O'Connell, Archbishop of Boston. On the day appointed, the two cardinals elect repaired to the apostolic palace in Rome, where His Holiness, Pius X, conferred upon them the red hat. The ceremonies over, each cardinal was assigned his titular church in Rome. The Holy Father expressed to the newly appointed American cardinals his recognition of the loyalty of his American children, and his gratification at the growth of the Catholic Church in the American Republic.

Questions

1. To which political party did Taft belong? State two provisions of the Payne-Aldrich Tariff Bill.
2. What are the postal savings banks?
3. Tell of the treaty with Japan. What were its effects?
4. In what manner was the Newfoundland Fisheries question settled?
5. Discuss the trouble with Nicaragua; the Mexican border warfare.
6. Who was Edward W. White?
7. Name two states admitted during Taft's administration.
8. What was the *Titanic* disaster?

9. What Cardinals were appointed? How many American Cardinals are there? Name them.
10. Enumerate the most important events of Taft's administration.

Theme Topics

1. Visit the postal savings department of your post office. Write a short theme describing it.
2. Let one or two members of the class imagine they were passengers on the *Titanic* and tell the story of the disaster to the class.

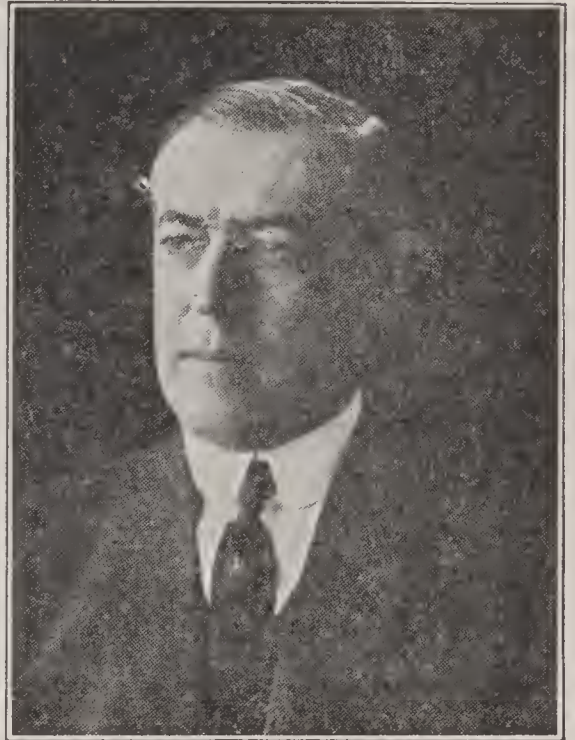
CHAPTER XLII

WOODROW WILSON'S ADMINISTRATION

DEMOCRAT—1913-1921

545. Wilson Elected. In the presidential election of 1912 Woodrow Wilson of the Democratic party was elected by a sweeping majority. For the first time in twenty years, and for the second time since the Civil War, there was a Democratic President and a Democratic majority in both houses of Congress. A new generation of leaders had grown up; the change meant new men, new ideals, new plans.

Woodrow Wilson, a native of Virginia, noted as an educator and author, was in turn graduate, professor, and president of Princeton University. He became governor of New Jersey (1910), and his remarkable success in managing the government of the state brought him prominently forward as a candidate of his party for the presidency.



WOODROW WILSON

546. The Sixty-third Congress in Extra Session. The many important questions now confronting the administration occasioned the President to call an extra session of Congress. Contrary to the century-long custom of sending a written message to Congress, President Wilson opened the first session of the Sixty-third Congress by delivering his message in a personal address to the two houses assembled

in the hall of the House of Representatives. The great problems placed before the legislative body by the President were a revision of the tariff, an income tax, and a reform of the currency.

547. The Underwood Tariff. Many supporters of the Democratic platform attributed the high cost of living to high tariff rates; accordingly, Representative Underwood introduced a bill proposing a reduction of the Payne-Aldrich Tariff. After many long and heated debates, the measure finally passed both houses and was signed (1913) by President Wilson. The Underwood Tariff abolished all duties on meats, fish, dairy products, potatoes, coal, iron ore, lumber, many classes of farm and office machinery, and raw wool. It reduced nearly two-thirds of the tariff on woolen clothing and one-third on cotton clothing, provided for free sugar in 1916, and for a general reduction on all important articles in general use.

548. The Sixteenth Amendment—Income Tax. The proposed Sixteenth Amendment to the Constitution was ratified (1913) by the necessary three-fourths of all the state legislatures. This amendment empowered Congress to lay and collect taxes on incomes.

In accordance with this Sixteenth Amendment, Congress enacted a law providing for an income tax, by which every person in the United States and every American citizen abroad must pay a tax on his or her yearly income, if it amounts to more than four thousand dollars. In order to increase government revenue during the World War, the income tax law was modified. Incomes of one thousand dollars or over in the cases of unmarried persons, and two thousand dollars or over in the cases of married persons, were taxed.

549. The Federal Reserve Act. In 1913 Congress passed the Owen-Glass Bill, which provides for a system of large regional reserve banks—not less than eight nor more than twelve, formed by a joining together of national banks—and for the establishment of branch banks where business requires it. It also creates a federal reserve board of seven members, consisting of four men

from the banks and three federal officers (Secretary of the Treasury, Secretary of Agriculture, and Comptroller of Currency). The most important feature, the so-called "re-discount provision," is that, when necessary, any bank can turn over to the regional banks, notes of business men who have borrowed money from it, and get fifty per cent of their face value in new paper money. The new notes are to be guaranteed by the local bank and the United States, and protected by a gold reserve of forty per cent to insure absolute safety. The whole idea is to prevent panics, by making capital and credit flow where it is needed and not letting it pile up uselessly where it is not needed.

550. The Seventeenth Amendment. The Seventeenth Amendment to the Constitution, ratified (1913) by the necessary three-fourths of all the states, requires that United States Senators be elected directly by the people of the states, not by the legislatures.

551. The Parcel Post. A parcel post provision had gone into effect during President Taft's administration (1913). It provided that packages weighing eleven pounds or less could be sent by mail at very low rates. The provision was, some months later, modified by raising the limit of weight to twenty pounds in the first two zones, and reducing the rate. During President Wilson's administration it was furthermore ordered that, beginning January 1, 1914, packages of fifty pounds be carried not more than one hundred and fifty miles, and that books be admitted to the Parcel Post.

552. The Tolls Repeal Bill. According to the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty with England, the Panama Canal was to be free, and open on terms of entire equality, to the vessels of commerce and war of all nations. In 1913 Congress passed a law which exempted from the payment of tolls vessels engaged in the coast-wise trade of the United States. After many long discussions in Congress, the Tolls Repeal Bill, which was strongly supported by President Wilson, was finally passed (1914), repealing this part of the Panama Canal Tolls Law.

553. Trouble with Mexico. As was previously stated, the people of Mexico rose in rebellion (1911) against President Diaz, who, for thirty years, had ruled the country like a monarch. The rebellion ended when he resigned. Scarcely had his successor, Madero, the leader of the revolutionists, entered upon the presidential office when a new insurrection broke out. General Huerta and others who had been supporting Madero suddenly turned their troops against him, forced him to resign, and murdered him. Huerta now became provisional governor, but President Wilson refused to recognize this government, on the principle that the United States should not recognize governments in this hemisphere that rest upon nothing but violence and personal ambition. While a fierce revolution against Huerta raged in northern Mexico, several American sailors in a motor boat, flying the American flag, landed at Tampico and were captured by the Mexicans. Although they were released after a short time, the incident was considered an insult to the American flag, and an apology and a salute of twenty-one guns for the flag were demanded. When Mexico refused to comply with this demand, the North Atlantic fleet of the United States Navy was ordered to Mexican ports, while Congress empowered the President to use the Army, the Navy, and the Treasury as he might deem best for upholding the dignity and honor of the nation. The President, however, took a firm stand against any declaration of war, and stated that this Mexican affair need not culminate in war if handled with firmness. Delay was fast becoming dangerous, for a German steamer loaded with munitions of war and consigned to the Mexican government arrived in the harbor of Vera Cruz. The President now ordered the seizure of the customhouse at Vera Cruz to prevent the German steamer from landing her cargo, and the customhouse was taken without opposition. A slight encounter, however, followed, during which several were killed and wounded on both sides.

At this important crisis, envoys from Argentina, Brazil, and Chile (A. B. C. envoys) offered to bring about a peaceful adjust-

ment of matters. Both the United States and the Huerta government of Mexico agreed to desist from further action and to send representatives to meet the A. B. C. envoys at Niagara Falls, Canada. This conference was successful in bringing about a peaceful solution of the problem.

554. Cape Cod Canal. In 1914 a canal connecting Buzzard's Bay and Massachusetts Bay was opened to commerce. It is thirteen miles in length and its construction cost twelve million dollars. By its use the water route between Boston and New York is shortened by seventy miles and coastwise vessels avoid the dangerous passage around Cape Cod.

THE WORLD WAR

CAUSES LEADING TO THE WORLD WAR

In preceding chapters the history of our country has been traced from the discovery by Columbus in 1492 to its position as one of the greatest nations of the world in 1914. We must now consider an international event which affected the interests of all civilization—the World War. To understand the World War, it is necessary to know something of the relations existing among the nations of Europe previous to its outbreak.

555. Struggle for Supremacy Among Nations of Europe. For centuries Europe has been the battleground of the world. More wars have been fought there than on any other continent, and they have had their origin in the desire of the nations for expansion in territory and in power. The stronger nations have overcome their weaker neighbors, thereby extending their boundaries. There always have been struggles for supremacy among the greater nations of Europe. After the decline of Greece, Rome rose to a high place, becoming the first nation of importance in Europe. She dominated the world until the fifth century, when the Germanic races from the North overspread the Roman Empire and caused its downfall. After a

long period, during which no single country was supreme in Europe, Spain emerged, the first of modern nations. She held sway over all other nations until the sixteenth century. At this period she passed the zenith of her power, and thereafter she rapidly declined as France assumed leadership. France reached her period of greatest influence when, under Napoleon, she controlled Europe from the ocean to Russia. But all of Europe leagued against France, bringing about her fall in 1815. Great Britain then became the dominating power in Europe; she became the greatest nation of Europe and of the world.

556. Development of the British Empire. It has been shown that, as a result of the French and Indian War, Canada was ceded to Great Britain by France (1763). At the same time India passed from French to British domination. With these acquisitions the island kingdom became a world empire. She has gradually extended her domains until today she is the greatest commercial and colonial power in the world. She has brought under her flag, besides Canada and India, the entire continent of Australia, Egypt, and other parts of Africa, many islands, and some parts of the Turkish Empire—more than one-fifth of the land area of the world. To hold her widely scattered territories together, Great Britain had to gain control of the seas. She gradually built up a powerful navy, and became known as the “Mistress of the Seas.”

557. Russia Becomes a World Power. After the decline of Napoleon (1815), Russia, which had helped to defeat him, developed rapidly. This great Slav power was extending her boundaries toward Constantinople and in central and eastern Asia. Her aim was to gain more power in India and to get control of Constantinople. Great Britain, to protect her interests in India, formed an alliance with France, and sent troops to the Black Sea. In the Crimean War which followed (1853), Russia was defeated and thus prevented from gaining control of Constantinople. In Asia, Japan, which had suddenly risen

to power, carried on a struggle against Russia. Finally, in the Russo-Japanese War (1904-1905), Russia was defeated.

558. Germany Rises to Power. In 1871, after the close of the Franco-Prussian War between France and the most powerful state in Germany, all the German states of Europe, except Austria, were united in one empire, with the King of Prussia, bearing the title of Emperor, at its head. Germany soon became the greatest continental power in Europe, and, under the leadership of Prussia, exercised an enormous influence upon world affairs.

559. The Position of France. France was greatly weakened by the Franco-Prussian War, as Prussia took Alsace-Lorraine from her and made it a part of the new German Empire. France thus lost valuable coal fields and important industries in this territory. But France set out to recover her industrial power and soon became a strong nation again. She established herself as a republic (for the third time), and has maintained that form of government to the present day. In the meantime she built up a strong army, knowing that Germany had established the largest and most powerful military organization in the world. Both Germany and France were prepared for a war that might again bring them into conflict.

560. Colonial Expansion. A few years after the unification of Germany, a new period of colonial expansion began. Business men of England, France, and Germany took their manufactured products to the markets of Asia and Africa, where they received in exchange wheat, sugar, cotton, minerals, rubber, and other raw materials which were needed in Europe. This exchange of goods led to a desire on the part of European nations for control of the productive areas in these two backward continents. A race for colonies followed, and by the close of the nineteenth century only Morocco in Africa, and Japan, China, Turkey, and Persia in Asia retained their independence. Great Britain had absorbed many new areas; France, Germany, and

Italy had gained lands, chiefly in Africa; and Russia had extended her boundaries in Asia.

561. Alliances Formed. In the struggle for supremacy no European nation could, without the aid of other countries, accomplish what it had set out to do. Before the close of the nineteenth century, the chief nations of Europe had become divided into two groups. The new German Empire formed a league, the Triple Alliance, with Austria and Italy, the other two central powers of Europe. Russia and France became united in the Dual Alliance. These groups were about equally balanced in power, and they soon set up a watch upon each other to prevent any increase in territory or influence which would upset this balance of power. Great Britain at first did not join either alliance.

562. Triple Entente. William II of Germany, being determined that his empire should become a great colonial power, built up an immense navy. Immediately Great Britain began to increase her navy. Moreover, she at once strengthened her position by entering into an alliance with France and Russia. This alliance was known as the Triple Entente.

563. Germany Enters Turkey. About this time, Germany fixed her attention upon Turkey, the one territory which she could reach by a land route. The Turkish Empire had been crumbling for a great many years, and, at the beginning of the present century, it seemed about to disappear. Great Britain, France, Italy, Austria, and Russia had, at various times, come into possession of portions of the Turkish Empire, and these great powers, as well as the smaller states, Serbia, Roumania, Greece, and Bulgaria, were hopefully waiting to add more of the Turkish lands to their dominions.

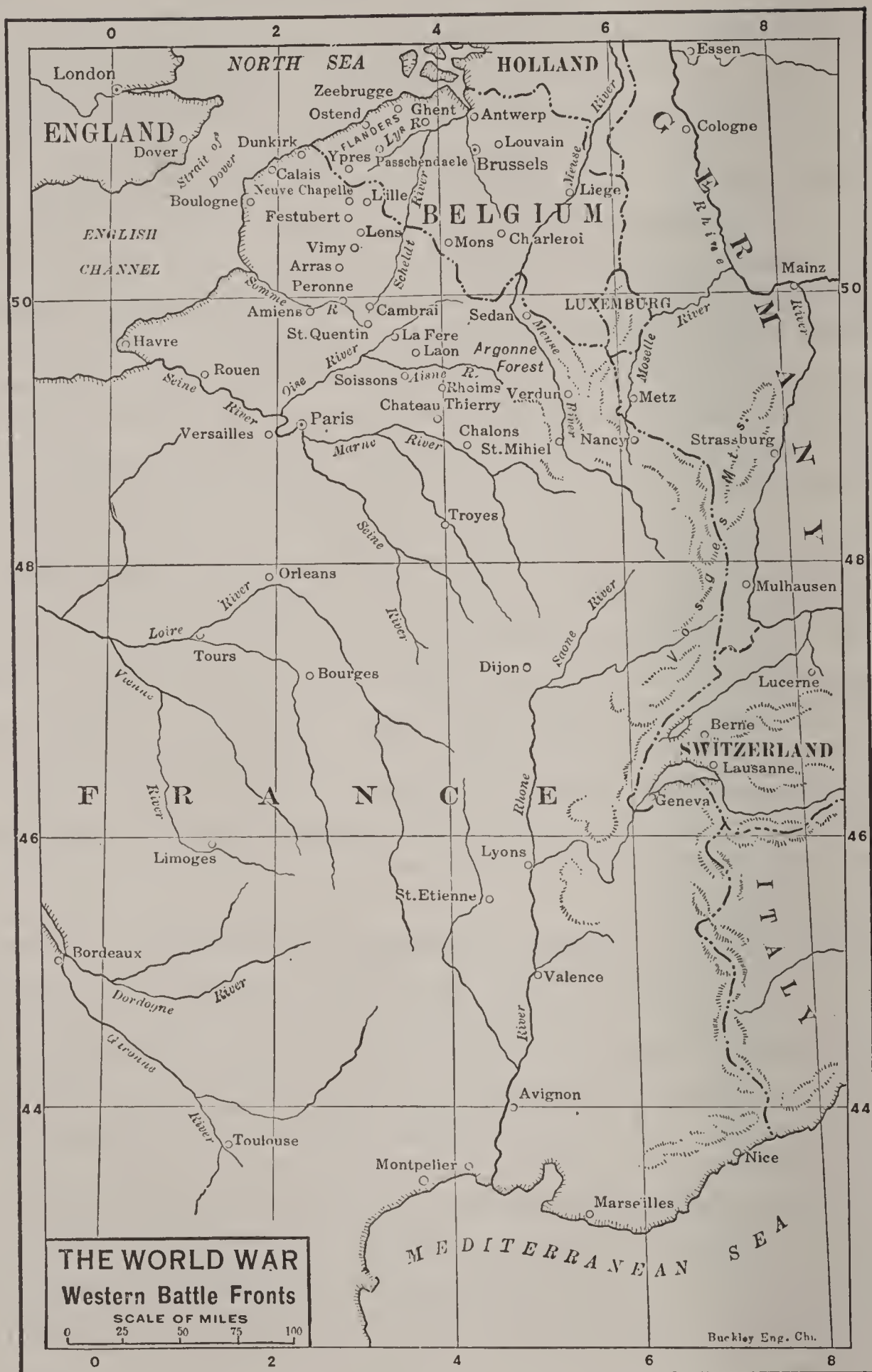
564. Berlin-Bagdad Railroad. Germany entered Turkey and with her capital obtained control of nearly all the railroads. Finally, she acquired a charter to extend the railroads through Asia Minor to Bagdad, on the Tigris River. This would give Germany control of the transportation system and the resources

of Asia Minor, and would leave her in possession of Turkey if that nation should pass out of existence. Moreover, it was the intention of Germany to connect Berlin with Bagdad and thus control a land route from central Europe to the East. The Triple Entente (Great Britain, France and Russia) planned to stop the building of the railroad. They protested to Turkey, but as that country approved of the project, it looked for a time as though Germany would succeed in linking Berlin and Bagdad.

565. Serbia Prevents Completion of Railroad. An obstacle, however, stood in the way of German accomplishment. Through the little state of Serbia lay the railroad which connected Berlin with Constantinople, and, according to German plans, this was a necessary section of the Berlin-Bagdad line. For a quarter of a century Serbia had been exceedingly hostile toward Austria, because that nation had occupied Bosnia, one of the Balkan provinces, which Serbia had wished to annex. Race differences and trade difficulties had increased the antagonism, until it seemed quite certain to the Triple Entente that Serbia would not allow a German enterprise within her borders. Serbia thus became the center of European interest, because she blocked German advance toward the southeast. Bitterness between Serbia and Austria, her powerful neighbor, steadily increased until the situation became so tense that the slightest incident might lead to war.

566. Archduke Francis Ferdinand Assassinated. On June 28, 1914, Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, and his wife were assassinated as they drove through the streets of Serajevo, Bosnia, during a Serb demonstration. After a month's investigation of the affair, Austria resolved to punish Serbia, and on July 28, 1914, declared war upon her small neighbor.

567. The World War Begins. About this time, Russia began to mobilize in defense of Serbia, and Germany declared war against her. The Kaiser's government then made certain demands upon France, which that country refused to consider.



Thereupon the Germans turned their armies for a sudden invasion of France.

568. War Spreads in Europe. The German Emperor, planning a swift defeat of France, sent his troops across the border into Belgium, breaking the treaty by which the neutrality of that little nation had been guaranteed by all the European powers. Years previously England had joined the other European powers (including Germany) in agreeing to defend Belgium in case her territory should be invaded. Great Britain remained true to her treaty pledges, and at once went to the assistance of Belgium. Thus, within ten days after Austria's declaration of war against Serbia, the Triple Entente and the Triple Alliance, with the exception of Italy, who came in later, faced each other in the most terrible conflict in history—Germany and Austria, the Central Powers, on one side, and Russia, France, Great Britain, with Belgium and Serbia, the Allied Powers, on the other. A little later Turkey and Bulgaria joined the Central Powers, and before the end of the war, the United States and Italy, besides fifteen minor nations, joined the cause of the Allied Powers.

Although the Central Powers were largely outnumbered, the conflict was not an uneven one. The German Emperor had established an immense army, which was the largest and best-trained in Europe. Strong fortifications were built on the borders of the Empire, and everything was in readiness in the event that war should come.

569. Death of Pope Pius X. In the midst of the preparations for the great continental war, the illustrious Pope Pius X died (August 20, 1914) with the words, "Together in one—all things in Christ" on his lips. He was in the eightieth year of his life and the twelfth of his pontificate. To see millions of his children, the heirs of nineteen centuries of Christianity, entering upon war hastened the Holy Father's end.

No Pope of modern times has effected so many wise changes in the internal government of the Church. His decrees on

frequent Communion and on the First Communion of children will immortalize the Great Pius X as the "Pope of the People" and the "Pope of the Blessed Sacrament"; while his last message

to Christendom, which was a prayer and an appeal for peace, will proclaim him to future generations as the "Pope of Peace."



POPE BENEDICT XV

570. Election of Benedict XV. The illustrious Pius X was laid to rest but a short time when the assembled conclave of Cardinals elected (November 3), as his successor, Cardinal della Chiesa, Pope Benedict XV. The new pontiff's first apostolic benediction sent to any foreign

country was for America. He expressed the hope that our country's attitude in favor of peace, together with the prayers raised to the Almighty throughout the world, would procure peace for the warring nations of Europe.

THE UNITED STATES PROCLAIMS NEUTRALITY

571. Neutrality Proclamation. From the moment war began in Europe, it became apparent that the natural sympathies and desires of the alien-born citizens of the United States threatened our country's neutrality. Therefore, on August 14, 1914, President Wilson issued a proclamation in which he advised all American citizens to "act and speak in the true spirit of neutrality, which is the spirit of impartiality and fairness and friendliness to all concerned." In taking this position, our President followed the policy which had been established by Washington in his famous proclamation of neutrality—the

policy of keeping out of the quarrels among the nations of Europe. But, difficult as it was in Washington's day to maintain neutrality, now it proved even more difficult. The United States had advanced from a weak nation, separated from Europe by slow means of travel and communication, to a world power with possessions and interests extending to all parts of the globe. Steamships, cables, mails, and wireless telegraphy held us in close relationship with all nations of the world.

572. War Affects Commerce of the United States. The war, at first, had a depressing effect on our commerce. We were cut off from the European markets for our goods as well as from the sources of raw materials for our factories. But the nations at war needed supplies for their armies and their civil populations, and we soon built up an immense trade with Great Britain and France in food, clothing, and war supplies.

573. Great Britain Interferes with Our Commerce. It must be remembered that Great Britain was supreme on the sea. This naval supremacy gave her a great advantage over her enemies; in fact, it was one of the leading causes of Germany's defeat. Shortly after the war began, the British navy drove all German ships from the ocean, capturing the merchantmen and destroying the raiders which attempted to interfere with the commerce of the Allied Powers. With her navy Great Britain ruled the commerce of the world. She maintained a blockade of German ports, seized neutral ships bound for these ports or for ports near Germany, and took them into her harbors, where they were searched for supplies intended for Germany. Against this action the United States protested, demanding that such practices be discontinued. Great Britain, however, continued her seizures, justifying her action on the ground that goods bound for neutral countries close to Germany would eventually reach the enemy and help her to carry on the war.

574. Germany Opens Submarine Warfare. Germany, finding herself cut off from supplies, determined to destroy British

commerce by the use of submarines. In February, 1915, she declared the British coast in a state of blockade, and asserted that her submarines would sink British merchant vessels wherever found on the high seas, and that neutral vessels attempting to reach enemy ports would be in danger. According to international law it had been agreed that warships would not destroy merchant vessels belonging to the enemy without making provision for the safety of passengers and crew. Germany claimed that the submarine blockade, to be effective, necessitated the sinking of a ship with the cargo. This meant that the lives of the passengers and crew would be imperiled, for the submarine could not take the victims on board and could not provide a means of getting them to shore.

575. The Lusitania Sunk. The United States immediately sent a reply to the German submarine proclamation, saying that she hoped and expected that the German government would "give assurance that American citizens and their vessels will not be molested by the naval forces of Germany otherwise than by visit and search." American citizens continued to travel on American vessels and on those of belligerent nations while Germany carried on her submarine campaign. On May 7, 1915, a German submarine torpedoed and sank, without warning, the British passenger vessel, the *Lusitania*, killing over a thousand men, women, and children, including more than one hundred American citizens.

576. Germany Promises Not to Sink Merchant Vessels Without Warning. The people of the United States were horrified by this act of Germany, and indignation became intense. President Wilson in a few days sent to the German government a note in which he insisted that American citizens had the right under international law to travel wherever legitimate business called them; that Germany must make reparation for the lives and property destroyed; and that submarine attacks on American lives and American ships must cease. Germany's reply was unsatisfactory. President Wilson then sent a

second note, and in answer to this, Germany promised to make reparation for the lives and property she had destroyed; she promised also not to sink merchant vessels without warning and to provide for the safety of passengers whenever such ships were sunk. Later, Germany decided to withdraw this promise.

577. Political Campaign of 1916. While this exchange of notes was in progress, our country was forced to turn its attention to a presidential election. The Republicans and the Progressives held their conventions in Chicago at the same time, and many persons hoped that the parties would unite and elect a Republican president. The Republicans, however, selected Charles E. Hughes, associate justice of the Supreme Court, as their candidate, while the Progressives gave the nomination to Theodore Roosevelt. When Mr. Roosevelt declined, Mr. Hughes received the endorsement of the Progressives. The Democrats held their convention in St. Louis and renominated Mr. Wilson. In the campaign that followed, President Wilson's policies, both domestic and foreign, were severely criticized by the Republicans, but a majority of the people approved them, and Mr. Wilson was reëlected.

THE UNITED STATES ENTERS THE WAR

578. Submarine Warfare Renewed. On January 31, 1917, the German ambassador, Count von Bernstorff, handed to the American Secretary of State a note in which the German government withdrew its promise not to sink merchant ships without warning and to protect the lives and property of neutrals. This action was explained on the ground that Germany was forced to use the only means in her possession to shorten the war, and, therefore, after February 1, 1916, would resume her submarine warfare, sinking at sight any vessel, neutrals included, appearing in zones around Great Britain, France, Italy, and in the Mediterranean Sea.

579. President Wilson Breaks Off Diplomatic Relations with Germany, and Arms Merchant Ships. Upon receiving this note, President Wilson broke off all communications with Germany, recalled our ambassador from Berlin, and dismissed the German ambassador at Washington. At this time our government had no desire to enter war against Germany, but it was determined to exercise its rights upon the sea. President Wilson, therefore, asked the consent of Congress, to place guns upon all merchant ships of the United States, hoping that this would cause Germany to cease her attacks.

580. War Declared (April 6, 1917). On April 2, 1917, President Wilson called Congress to assemble in joint session. In a memorable address he reviewed the deeds of Germany, telling of her submarine warfare, her intrigues against American peace and industry, and of the plots in Mexico to stir up enmity against our country. He advised "that the Congress declare the recent course of the Imperial German Government to be, in fact, nothing less than war against the Government and the people of the United States." After a few days of debate, Congress, on April 6, 1917 (Good Friday), declared that a condition of war existed between Germany and the United States.

581. Council of National Defense. Even before the United States had entered the war, Congress had authorized the President to appoint a Council of National Defense, which was to consist of six cabinet members and seven civilians who were selected because of their record as organizers. It was the duty of this Council to investigate the industries and resources of the United States and to recommend to the President the means by which the railroads, waterways, production of needed supplies, etc., might be developed for the greater security and welfare of our country. Coöperating with this Council were various boards and commissions, the members of which were recognized leaders in business, industry, and science. During the war these men, many of whom would accept only one dollar

a year as salary, rendered invaluable service to the government in the solution of the special problems which arose, such as obtaining raw materials and supplies, directing labor, and providing for aircraft production, munitions, and transportation.

582. Army Draft Bill. The first problem confronting the United States after the declaration of war was that of increasing the army. For this purpose Congress in May, 1917, passed a selective draft law which provided that the National Army should be chosen from among all men between the ages of



SETTING-UP EXERCISES AT CAMP BENNING, GEORGIA

twenty-one and thirty-one years inclusive. On June 5, which had been set aside as registration day, over ten million young men went to their voting places and registered. Some of these were exempted from active service because they had dependents or because they were engaged in industries essential to the winning of the war; others were rejected because of physical or mental defects. An amendment to the Army Draft Bill (August, 1918) extended the draft age to include all men between the ages of eighteen and forty-five, making available for military service an additional thirteen million men. Long before

the draft many thousand volunteers had been accepted for service in the Army, Navy, and Marine Corps. These, together with the regular army, and the men who were selected from the draft lists, made up a total armed force of 4,800,000 men, of whom 4,000,000 served in the Army. More than two million American soldiers reached France, and of this number two out of every three saw active service in battle. Our losses in killed, wounded, prisoners, and missing were more than 225,000 men.



TROOPS ON A TRANSPORT BOUND FOR FRANCE

583. Problem of Transportation. The transportation of soldiers and supplies to Europe was the most serious task which our government had to face. In the year preceding our entrance into the war, Congress had created the Shipping Board for the purpose of increasing the number of our merchant ships. This board had under its control a capital of \$50,000,000 with which to build or buy ships, and had already begun its work of construction. Immediately after declaring war, Congress had given to the President the power to purchase or construct ships almost without limit. Shipyards throughout the country were

brought into service, new yards were opened, and the building of ships was begun on an enormous scale.

At the request of the Allied Powers, the United States, a few weeks after the declaration of war, began to send troops overseas, but the movement was very slow because of the lack of troop ships. Within a year, however, an immense American transport fleet was developed. For this purpose, ships were secured from every possible source. In the autumn of 1917, the German



A FORMATION OF NAVAL CADETS

vessels which had been seized in our harbors came into service; in the following spring, vessels were chartered from various nations scattered over the world. These, with the great number of new ships which had been rapidly constructed in our shipyards, carried men and supplies to Europe. British aid in the transportation of troops and supplies was greatly increased, and by July, 1918, more than 10,000 American soldiers were landing in Europe each day.

To reach Europe it was necessary to pass through the zone in which Germany was carrying on her unrestricted submarine

warfare, but in spite of the fact that more than two million American soldiers were transported through this zone, not one troop ship, under American convoy, was lost on its eastward voyage. Credit for this splendid record must be given to the United States Navy, which convoyed the troop transports through the submarine zone, surrounding them with a screen of rapid destroyers which protected them from submarine attacks.

584. The President's Appeal to Labor. Besides the armed forces at the battle front, on the seas, and in the camps, a large portion of the population of the United States was engaged in war work of one sort or another. These men and women produced food, clothing, ships, guns, and ammunition, and were, in the words of President Wilson, "no less a part of the army that is in France than the men beneath the battle flags." To these workers the President appealed for support of the government in its task of winning the war. In response, organized labor throughout the country pledged its loyalty, promising to do all in its power to prevent strikes during the war. Mr. Samuel Gompers, President of the American Federation of Labor, was appointed chairman of the Advisory Commission on Labor. A National War Labor Board was created for the purpose of adjusting by arbitration any difficulties arising between employers and workers in the industries necessary for the conduct of the war. Former President Taft and Mr. Frank P. Walsh were appointed joint chairmen of this board.

585. Conservation of Food. During the early months of the war, it became evident that our food supplies must be conserved and their prices regulated. Congress, therefore, passed the Food Control Bill, which forbade the restriction of supplies by destroying or hoarding food or by limiting the facilities for its production or transportation. Mr. Herbert C. Hoover, who had been head of the relief work in Belgium, was appointed national food administrator.

Throughout the country a campaign was carried on to impress upon the people the necessity of economy in the use of food. "Wheatless" and "meatless" days were established in homes, hotels, and restaurants, with the result that much wheat and meat were conserved. By means of public speakers and posters, efforts were made through the schools, community houses, clubs, and business establishments to prevent waste of food and to increase its production by the cultivation of small private gardens.



HERBERT HOOVER

586. Railroads. The transportation of troops and supplies to the various parts of our country presented serious difficulties. In April, 1917, the executives of the great railways had united their lines in one vast system for the purpose of increasing their service to the government. This plan, however, failed to meet the conditions created by the war. Congestion of traffic occurred along all lines, particularly in the East. Cars loaded with food and other supplies stood on the tracks for days, waiting to be moved. In December, 1917, therefore, President Wilson issued a proclamation by which the railroads were placed under government control and operation. Mr. William G. McAdoo, Secretary of the Treasury, was made Director-general of all the railroads. During the following year the government assumed control of express, telephone, and telegraph companies, and the cable lines.

587. Raising Money to Win the War. The World War was the most costly event in history. In the four years of its duration (1914-1918), the total cost to all the countries involved amounted to \$186,000,000,000. Of this sum the United States, in two years (April, 1917 to April, 1919), spent almost \$22,000,000,000 which is considerably more than \$1,000,000 an hour. As a part of this huge expenditure, our government made loans to the Allies at the rate of nearly a half million dollars an hour, a total of \$10,000,000,000.

To secure funds for meeting these enormous demands, heavy taxes were enforced on incomes, on inheritances, and on the excess profits of industries. Besides these, four loans, amounting to nearly \$17,000,000,000, were floated by our government at various times during the war. Interest-bearing bonds, called Liberty Loan bonds, were issued in large and small denominations, the smallest being fifty dollars. The people of the United States were asked to express their patriotism by purchasing these bonds. It is estimated that there were 4,500,000 subscribers to the first Liberty Loan and 21,000,000 to the Fourth. After the close of the war, more money was required, and a fifth, or Victory Loan, was issued. This provided for \$4,500,000,000 and was largely oversubscribed. Another large amount was raised through the sale of War Savings Stamps. These stamps, which were sold at twenty-five cents each, proved most attractive to school children and small wage earners.

588. Contributions to Welfare Organizations. Aside from the heavy taxes and the immense loans made to the government, the people gave millions of dollars for the relief of sick and wounded soldiers, sailors, and marines, and for the care of the physical and mental health of those who were in the camps at home and in Europe. At the outset of the war President Wilson had declared the Red Cross to be "the officially recognized agency of voluntary effort in behalf of the armed forces of the nation and for the administration of relief." This association did splendid work through its hospitals for sick and wounded

soldiers of the American army in France, its care of the destitute women and children of the devastated regions of France and Belgium, and its rest houses, canteens, and recreation huts for the soldiers of all nations at war with Germany. To carry on this work, the people of the United States contributed more than \$100,000,000 to the American Red Cross.

Besides the Red Cross, other social and welfare organizations worked together to keep the boys in the camps and in the trenches



WELFARE ORGANIZATION LEADERS

(On the extreme left is Bishop Muldoon and on the right, W. P. Parlin, both Knights of Columbus)

fit for their great task of winning the war. Among these organizations were the National Catholic War Council, the Knights of Columbus, the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, the Salvation Army, the Jewish Welfare Relief, and the American Library Association. "Drives for funds" were conducted by these organizations, and the generous response of the people enabled them to furnish rest houses, canteens, recreation huts, reading matter, and other forms of entertainment and comforts for the men in the service.

589. The Insurance Act. In October, 1917, Congress passed an insurance act which provided for the appropriation of large sums of money for the following purposes: (1) to pay allowances during the war to the dependents of soldiers, sailors, and marines; (2) to make compensation to service men who were disabled in the war, and to the dependents of those who might die from injuries or disease contracted in the war; and (3) to provide an inexpensive system of insurance for those in active service. It was believed that this provision for dependents would relieve from worry the men in the Army, Navy, and Marine Corps and thus make them better soldiers, sailors, and marines.

590. Airplanes. The airplane had become so important as an instrument of war equipment that the Allied Powers, immediately after our country had declared war against Germany, urged the United States to send 4,500 American aviators to France within a year. At this time our air service was very small; we had only two aviation fields, fifty-five old-fashioned airplanes, and about twelve hundred officers, students, and enlisted men. Congress, therefore, passed the Aviation Bill, which provided for an expenditure of \$640,000,000 for the construction of airplanes and the training of aviators.

Before the end of war nearly 12,000 airplanes and 19,000 airplane engines of American manufacture were shipped overseas, one-third of which were used in the war zone. During the nineteen months of the war the Air Service personnel had increased to nearly 200,000 men; forty-five squadrons had been engaged at the front, where they had played important parts in the battles of Chateau-Thierry, St. Mihiel, and the Meuse-Argonne.

591. The American Army in France. We have seen that the United States, a few weeks after the declaration of war, began to send troops overseas. General John J. Pershing, who had become well known in connection with our expedition into Mexico, was appointed Commander-in-chief of the American

Expeditionary Forces. General Pershing and his staff arrived in Paris in June, 1917, and immediately entered into consultation with the commanders-in-chief of the armies of the Allied Powers for the purpose of considering the most effective means of combining their forces. It was decided that the American soldiers, after their arrival in France, should have two months of training before entering the line, and one month in a quiet sector before going into battle. Though some of the Americans were under fire during their last period of training in the trenches, it was not until the spring of 1918 that they saw their first actual warfare.

592. German Offensive in March. The German High Command decided to make a final effort to win a complete victory over the Allied Powers before the United States could transport a large army to Europe. A revolution had occurred in Russia, the Czar had been overthrown,

and the government had passed into the hands of the Bolsheviki, who had made peace with the Germans. This event released from the Russian front a million German soldiers, who were soon transferred to the western line in France. General von Ludendorff, in command of the German armies in France and Belgium, planned to break through the Allies' line, capture Amiens and the French ports along the west coast, and then turn her guns against Paris, bringing the war to a speedy close. The great offensive which was to accomplish this victory continued over a



GENERAL JOHN J. PERSHING

period of almost four months (March 21, 1918 to July 18, 1918) and included five terrific assaults.

593. First Phase of German Offensive. The first objective of the Germans was Amiens. To gain this city an attack was made upon a sector held entirely by the British, who were forced to fall back from their position. In their retreat, the British were forced to move toward Amiens. The Allies did not have enough available troops to guard the Oise valley, which is on the direct road to Paris. The Germans immediately gave up the idea of reaching Amiens, and turned toward Paris. A small French army, which was quickly brought into the valley, fought desperately to check the advance of the Germans, but, greatly outnumbered, was pushed back, foot by foot, until reënforcements arrived. The Germans made one more desperate attempt to break through the French lines, but they were repulsed. Field Marshal von Hindenburg then turned his attention once more to Amiens.

When the first phase of the German offensive was at its height (March 28, 1918), the Allies came to an agreement to place all their forces under the supreme command of one man, Marshal Ferdinand Foch, a leading French strategist and a devout Catholic. On the following day General Pershing placed at the disposal of Marshal Foch all of the American forces to be used as the great Marshal might decide. The Americans not already at the front soon began their march to take part in the battle, and from then to the end of the war were joined with the French and British all along the line from the North Sea to Switzerland.

594. First Battle for Americans. In April, 1918, the first division of Americans had gone into line in the Montdidier section of the battle front. Confident of the results of their training, the men were eager for the test. On May 28, they attacked the Germans and completely routed them. They captured the town of Cantigny, taking more than two hundred prisoners.

By terrific counter-attacks the Germans tried to regain the town, but the Americans held it steadfastly. This was the first genuine battle experience of the American troops, and their brilliant action demonstrated their splendid fighting qualities under hard battle conditions.

595. Soldiers and Marines at Chateau-Thierry. The Germans began the third movement in their great offensive (May 27, 1918) by crossing the Aisne River and advancing rapidly toward Paris. For three days they pressed forward, taking everything before them, and on the fourth day they were within forty miles of the city. Here, at Chateau-Thierry, they were halted by American soldiers and marines in one of the fiercest battles of the war. Side by side the soldiers and marines fought, their machine guns, rifles and shrapnel making inroads upon the enemy until, finding further advances impossible, the Germans turned and fled into the woods. The Americans followed and raked the woods with their machine guns and rifles to prevent the Germans from moving toward Paris.

During the engagement at Chateau-Thierry, a single regiment of the Third Division of Americans gained one of the greatest victories in our military history. A large force of German infantry attempted to advance under a powerful artillery fire. The Americans, firing in three directions, met their attacks and succeeded in throwing the Germans into confusion. In this engagement our troops captured nearly six hundred German prisoners.

596. Fighting in Belleau Wood. The American troops had played an important part in the protection of Paris by driving the Germans into Belleau Wood. But in this wood the Germans had established themselves in a position which they considered impregnable. In the jungle of matted underbrush and heavy foliage, they had planted nest after nest of machine guns and had prepared to defend their position against any attack. But Paris was not safe and the battle of Chateau-Thierry was not

completely won while the Germans held the wood. It was necessary, therefore, to drive the enemy from their position, and this task fell to the American marines.

In the history of the Marine Corps there is no battle which compares with that in Belleau Wood. For almost a month (June, 1918), the marines fought day and night, without relief, often without water, and for days without hot rations. Greatly outnumbered by the Germans, they fought on until they had cleared the wood of every German soldier. Their losses were enormous; more than half their number were killed or badly wounded, but their heroism and persistence turned the tide of battle and won for them an imperishable fame. With this victory the success of the Allies began.

597. Counter-Offensive Begun by Marshal Foch. About two weeks after the defeat of the Germans in Belleau Wood, General von Ludendorff began the fifth and last drive of his offensive (July 15, 1918). The attack was made from Chateau-Thierry eastward along a sixty-five mile front. For three days the German armies advanced, crossing the Marne River at several places. But, on the fourth day, they were stopped by the strategy of Marshal Foch in the second battle of the Marne.

While the Germans were trying to force their way through the lines of the Allies, Marshal Foch was preparing for his great counter-offensive. Large masses of troops were gathered, including the best French and foreign regiments and many Americans. On July 18 a heavy blow was launched against the Germans all along the line from Chateau-Thierry on the Marne to the Aisne River northwest of Soissons. The Germans, taken wholly by surprise, were thrown into confusion and forced to retreat. Thousands of prisoners were taken, with hundreds of heavy cannon, many machine guns, and large quantities of ammunition.

It was a master stroke of the great Marshal Foch and the first of a series of great victories which led to the complete defeat of the German forces. From that day on, for more than three

months, Foch continued his attacks, driving against the German line, first at one point, then at another, his armies steadily advancing along a battle front that extended from the North Sea to St. Mihiel.

598. Americans at St. Mihiel. In September, 1918, the Americans, under command of General Pershing, opened their first great offensive. About 600,000 troops had been concentrated for an assault upon the strong German defenses at St. Mihiel. In the early morning, after four hours of artillery fire, seven divisions of Americans advanced through the dense fog, attacking the enemy on two sides. The Germans, demoralized by the powerful assaults, fell back from their position, yielding to the Americans 16,000 prisoners, hundreds of guns, and a great quantity of supplies. The Americans had not only gained the city of St. Mihiel, but had taken two hundred square miles of territory, releasing from enemy domination the inhabitants of many small villages. Of this American success, General Pershing said, "The Allies found they had a formidable army to aid them and the enemy learned finally that he had one to reckon with."

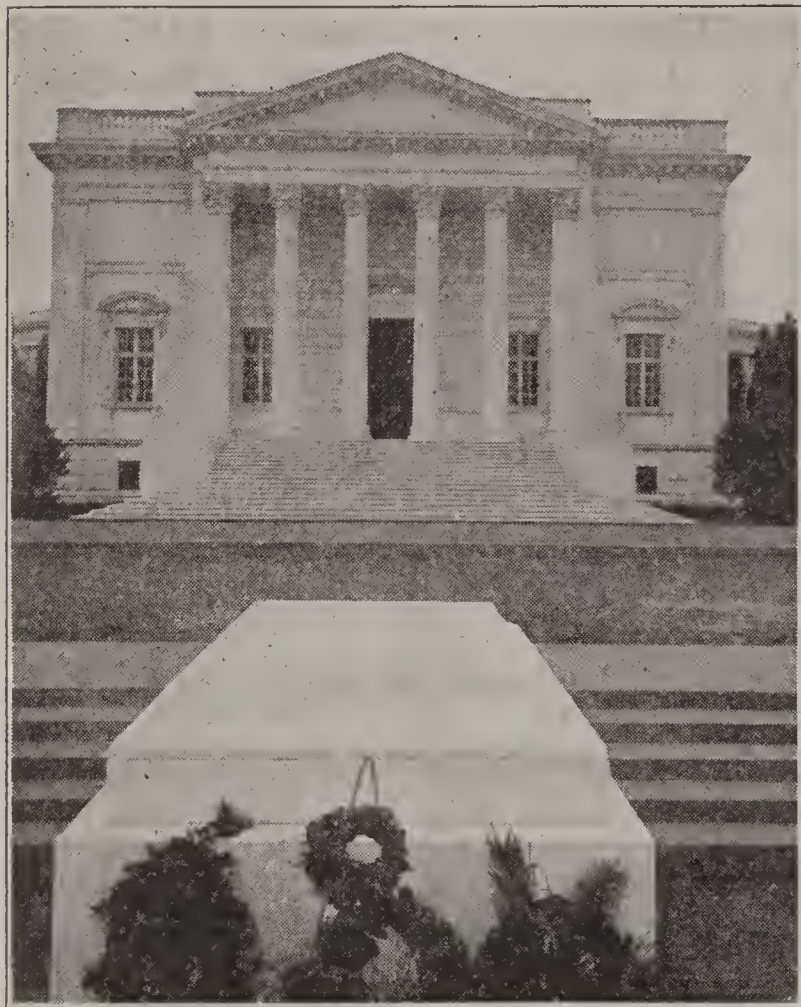
599. The Meuse-Argonne Battle. Marshal Foch had now planned a general attack upon the German armies all along the battle front. In this attack the American troops were to direct their operations against the important railroad communications of the Germans through the city of Sedan.

Sedan was the principal gateway by which the German forces, with their four years' accumulation of war supplies, could escape. If these lines of communication could be cut, disaster would fall upon all the German armies in France and Belgium.

The American troops, after the capture of St. Mihiel, were transferred to the area between the Meuse River and the western edge of the Argonne forest. General Pershing, certain that the German general staff would do everything in its power to hold its lines of communication, planned to use all of the American divisions in the Meuse-Argonne battle.

On September 26, the Americans drove through the barbed wire entanglements and across "no man's land." In three days they had pushed the Germans back over seven miles of territory

and had taken 10,000 prisoners. The best German troops were thrown against the Americans, but were unable to stop the advance. Through the Argonne forest they fought their way, where the ravines, hills, and elaborate defenses, hidden from view by dense thickets, gave an almost impregnable position to the German army. Against machine guns, gas, and heavy artillery fire, the Americans pressed on, and by October 10, had cleared the Argonne forest of the enemy.



GRAVE OF AMERICA'S UNKNOWN SOLDIER AT
WASHINGTON, D. C.

600. The Armistice. This final drive of the Americans in the Meuse-Argonne battle was one of the immediate causes of the downfall of Germany. In the words of General Pershing, in his report to Secretary of War Baker:

"The final advance in the Meuse-Argonne front was begun on November 1. . . . On the second . . . the movement . . . became an impetuous onslaught that could not be stayed. . . . On the sixth, a division of the First Corps reached a point on the Meuse opposite Sedan, twenty-five miles from our line of

departure. The strategical goal which was our highest hope was gained. We had cut the enemy's main line of communications and nothing but surrender or an armistice could save his army from complete disaster." General von Ludendorff chose an armistice, which was signed on November 11, 1918, and thus the World War was brought to an end.

601. Fighting Outside the Lines. No history of the World War is complete without some slight tribute to the men who did their fighting outside the battle lines. These were the architects, doctors, lawyers, engineers, city-planners, contractors, builders, and scientists, who, in answer to the call of our government, volunteered where they best might serve in the winning of the war. They were men from every profession, from every walk of life, many of them far beyond the draft age, and all experts in their respective callings. Their task was tremendous and most important.

To care for the suddenly increased Army, new camps were necessary. Within three months, sites were selected, contracts awarded, and shelter provided for 430,000 men. The work of construction kept pace with the demands of the government, and before the close of the war, about forty large camps, as well as smaller projects, had been completed, providing accommodations for more than 2,000,000 men. Each camp was a city in itself; besides the barracks, it included mess halls, roads, walks, electric lights, water systems, sewers, a theater, a post office, store buildings, hospitals, stables, and garages.

The list of construction projects is a long one and includes in our country the investment of millions of dollars in warehouses, terminal piers, wharves, forts, arsenals, storage depots for ammunition, power plants, munition plants, gas plants, acid plants, and army supply bases. In Europe, miles of roads and railways were constructed, as well as immense wharves, storage depots, barracks, and hospitals.

The medical corps deserves special praise for its work in the camps of our country, in the hospitals in Europe, and at the

battle front. Men and women of high professional standing left their offices and entered the service, where they played an important part in aiding the sick and wounded troops.

602. American Catholics in the World War. The Catholics of the United States were the first of the religious bodies of our country to offer their services to the government. On April 18, 1917, twelve days after the declaration of war, the Archbishops of the Catholic Church, who were assembled for their



RETURNED SOLDIERS PARADING IN NEW YORK

annual meeting at the Catholic University in Washington, drew up a pledge of loyalty and support which they sent to President Wilson. In this pledge they affirmed that not only the Hierarchy, priests, and nuns, but all the flock, nearly twenty million Catholics, stood ready to coöperate in every way possible with our President and our government "for the preservation, the progress, and the triumph of our beloved country."

The pledge of the Archbishops was kept. From the beginning of the war to its close, Catholics throughout the nation

accepted their full share of work and sacrifice. Parishes were organized for every war activity and, under the leadership of the Parish Priest, coöperated with our government in every way possible. In some localities the Catholic Church became the center of all war activities. Inspired by the zealous patriotism of the Parish Priests, Catholics and non-Catholics united their whole energy in the great work of winning the war.

603. Knights of Columbus Pledge Their Support.

Even before the pledge of the Hierarchy had been sent to the President, the Knights of Columbus, meeting in Washington, had passed a resolution promising the patriotic devotion of their 400,000 members and offering to



AMERICAN SOLDIERS AT A EUROPEAN MONASTERY

the President and Congress their continued support. Two months later this organization opened a campaign for a million dollar fund to be known as the Knights of Columbus War Camp Fund, which was to be spent for religious and recreational purposes for the benefit of all men in the service.

604. National Catholic War Council. Shortly after the United States had entered the war, Catholic societies from all parts of the country flooded Washington, with offers of service. It soon became evident that the Catholic problems arising out of the war could best be solved only through unity of action, and immediately steps were taken to coördinate Catholic activities. Under the leadership of Reverend John J. Burke, C. S. P., and the patronage of Cardinals Gibbons, Farley, and O'Connell, official representatives of the clergy, the Catholic Societies and

the Catholic Press Association met in Washington, in August, 1917, for the purpose of forming a permanent organization that would insure such unity during the war.

The final outcome of this meeting was the formation of the National Catholic War Council which, according to the plan proposed by Cardinal Gibbons, was composed of the following: (1) a Board of Archbishops, consisting of the fourteen Archbishops of the country, who assumed responsibility for all Catholic war work; (2) an administrative committee of four Bishops, which was to direct and control, with the aid of the Board of Archbishops, all Catholic activities during the war; and (3) an executive committee consisting of the four Bishops, six members of the committee on Knights of Columbus War Activities, and six members of the Committee on Special War Activities. To the Knights of Columbus Committee was assigned the task of providing recreation centers for enlisted men in the camps, both at home and overseas, while the Committee on Special War Activities was placed in charge of all other matters.

The Right Reverend P. J. Muldoon, D. D., Bishop of Rockford, was appointed chairman of the Administrative Committee of the National Catholic War Council. To him and to other Catholic leaders must be given the credit for the splendid success of Catholic endeavor during the war. In a very short period Bishop Muldoon had not only unified the work of all Catholic agencies, but had coördinated these agencies with the forces of other welfare organizations. His work was so well done that out of it has developed a permanent organization for national service, the National Catholic Welfare Council.

605. Catholic Chaplains in the War. The chief problem of any war, from the viewpoint of Catholics, is that of safeguarding the immortal souls of those who go forth to give their lives to their country. The National Catholic War Council made this problem the starting point of its great work. Through its efforts, the Chaplains Bill was passed by Congress, increasing the number of chaplains in every regiment from one to three.

Archbishop Patrick J. Hayes, of New York, was appointed as the Catholic chaplain bishop for the Army and Navy.

An entire volume might be written upon the deeds of the Catholic chaplains who, by their companionship and inspiration, raised the morale not only of Catholic soldiers and sailors, but of all with whom they came into contact, thereby increasing the efficiency of the Army and Navy. In this short history of the war, it will be understood, only a brief, general statement can be made of the invaluable service which these brave priests gave to God and their country.

606. Chaplain's Aid Association. During the first month of the war, the Chaplain's Aid Association was founded by Reverend John J. Burke, C. S. P., for the purpose of furnishing to the Catholic chaplains in the Army and Navy everything necessary for their ministrations to the men in the service.

The National Catholic War Council took over the direction of this association and made an appeal for aid to every Catholic in the country. People responded most generously, sending money, altar linens, vestments, and religious articles to the association. An almost unending list of articles, ranging from reading matter and woollens to talking-machine records, made up the contribution of this association toward the winning of the war.

607. Rehabilitation School Established. On May 1, 1919, the National Catholic War Council founded, at the Catholic University in Washington, D. C., a school for the training of



CHAPLAIN JOHN O'DONNELL, WHO WON
THE DISTINGUISHED SERVICE MEDAL

soldiers and sailors who had been wounded in the service and who were thus unfitted for their former work. This was the first school of its kind, and its success made it a model for rehabilitation classes which were later established by the government. Four courses were offered to the wounded men—auto-mechanics, machine-shop work, electricity, and clerical work—and several hundred men received instruction in the school. Applications for attendance poured in so rapidly that new buildings became a necessity, and in May, 1920, the new Rehabilitation School was completed. Besides the vocational training, a course in Civic Education is now given. The school has become a permanent feature of Catholic education in the United States.

608. Service Clubs, Visitors' Houses, Community Houses. The National Catholic War Council established the first Service Clubs for soldiers and sailors and organized Catholic men's societies. After the Armistice these clubs became centers for men who desired information concerning employment, war risk insurance, hospital aid, and vocational training.

The Catholic Women's Societies, through the National Catholic War Council, built, equipped, and managed twelve Visitors' Houses at the various camps throughout the country. Besides the Visitors' Houses, the Catholic Women's Societies established twenty-eight Community Houses. The Community Houses supervised the boarding homes, cafeterias, rest rooms, employment bureaus, and recreational and educational facilities which were offered to women engaged in war industries.

609. Work of Catholic War Council in Europe. The National Catholic War Council began its social service work in Europe with the opening of the Etoile Service Club in Paris in January, 1919. This club was established for the benefit of enlisted men in the Armies and Navies of the United States and those of the Allied Powers. Thousands of soldiers and sailors enjoyed the comforts it offered to them.

610. National Catholic Welfare Council. Out of Catholic war work has developed a permanent national organization,

the National Catholic Welfare Council. The purpose of this council is that of unifying all Catholic agencies of the country. Several departments have been established by the council, each of which is concerned with a particular problem.

- (1) Department of Education, which studies the problems and conditions which affect the work and development of Catholic schools;
- (2) Department of Social Welfare, which coördinates those activities which aim to improve social conditions;
- (3) Department of Press and Literature, which systematizes the work of publication; and
- (4) Department of Societies and Lay Activities, which aims to secure a more unified action among Catholic organizations.

The voluntary association of archbishops and bishops, now known as the National Catholic Welfare Council, is not to be confused with a Council called by the Holy See and having legislative power. It is most probable that the term "conference" will be chosen by the bishops as preferable to the word Council. This question, as well as others, was discussed by the Administrative Committee at a meeting held at Loyola University, Chicago, in January, 1923.

THE PEACE CONFERENCE AT VERSAILLES

611. President Wilson's Fourteen Points. While our armies were engaged on the battlefields, the people of the United States, aroused by the terrible loss in life, money, and property, raised a cry that this must be the last war, "the war to end wars." A strong feeling arose in America that, in order to establish permanent peace, autocratic governments, immense armies and navies, secret treaties and hostile alliances must be abolished, and in their place must be formed a union among the nations of the world which would pledge itself to preserve peace and justice.

President Wilson, as the spokesman of the American people, from time to time eloquently expressed this opinion. In calling

upon Congress to take up arms against Germany, he had firmly declared that our quarrel was with the autocratic government of Germany, not with the people of that country, and that the United States desired no material gains. In his message to Congress on January 8, 1918, he presented a peace program of Fourteen Points, among which were the following: (1) abolition of secret treaties between nations, (2) absolute freedom of the seas, (3) equality of trade conditions among all nations, (4) reduction of national armaments, (5) impartial adjustment of colonial claims, (6) redrawing of the map of Europe, along lines of nationalities, (7) creation of a League of Nations.

612. The Treaty of Peace. The Peace Conference met in Versailles, France, in December, 1918, and President Wilson, as head of the American delegation, took a leading part in the discussion and settlement of the peace terms. Although the President's "Fourteen Points" became the basis of most of the claims laid before the conference, all of the victorious powers, with the exception of the United States, already had made secret treaties among themselves involving the distribution of German and Austrian territory. Great Britain, France, Russia, and Italy had agreed to divide the Turkish Empire among themselves in such a way that each power would gain the portion which it had long desired. Great Britain and Japan had planned to seize the German colonial possessions in the Far East. France demanded that Alsace-Lorraine be returned to her, and Italy wished to extend her boundaries toward the north and east so that she might gain control of the Adriatic Sea.

President Wilson insisted that wherever changes were to be made in the map of Europe, the lines should be drawn in such manner that people of the same nationality would live under the same government. This was an ideal policy, but it was not acceptable to the European diplomats, who, having gained a victory, were determined to secure advantages for their respective countries. President Wilson finally accepted their distribution

of territory, though in a modified form, in exchange for their acceptance of his plans for a League of Nations.

613. The League of Nations. In April, 1919, the plan for the League of Nations was completed, and by the close of December, 1921, it had been accepted by fifty-one nations, although the United States had refused to ratify the plan.

The chief purpose of the League was to prevent war, and for this purpose four important measures were planned by the nations composing it: (1) the reduction of armaments, (2) the abolition of secret treaties, (3) the protection of weak nations, and (4) the settlement, in the Court of International Justice, of disputes arising between the nations.

614. Treaty of Peace Signed, June 28, 1919. When the Covenant of the League of Nations had been accepted by the delegates to the Peace Conference, work was begun upon the treaty of peace with Germany. Besides the five great powers, about twenty small states had either fought against the Central Powers or had broken off relations with them, and each of these now made claims against the vanquished nations. In May, 1919, the treaty was completed and presented to the representatives of Germany who had been called to Versailles. After some protests and a few slight changes, the treaty was signed on June 28, 1919, the fifth anniversary of the murder of Archduke Francis Ferdinand.

By the treaty of Versailles, Germany was utterly humbled. Territory was taken from her on the east and west, Alsace-Lorraine passing to France and the eastern provinces going to the newly-independent state of Poland; upper Silesia with its invaluable coal fields and the Saar valley were made "plebiscite" areas (that is, the people in these territories were to decide by vote whether they wished to remain under German domination); the important coal mines in the Saar valley, however, were left under temporary control of France in payment for French coal mines destroyed by the Germans. The German colonies in Asia, Africa, and the Pacific Ocean, and all concessions which

Germany had held in China, such as the right to operate railroads, were distributed among the victors. Germany was forced to destroy her powerful fortifications of Heligoland and to open the Kiel Canal to all nations; her army was reduced to 100,000 men and her navy was limited to thirty-six ships. The terms of the treaty provided that the manufacture by Germany of cannon, machine guns, munitions, and aircraft be limited to a very small scale. She was forbidden to manufacture submarines. Moreover, she was required to accept full responsibility for the damage she had done during the war and to make reparation for it to the Allies, beginning within two years by a payment of \$5,000,000,000.

615. Treaty with Austria. Austria, too, was stripped of her greatness. Many groups of her former subjects were released from her control and were joined to the various nations about her. Austria was finally reduced from a nation of the first rank to a small German republic of about six million inhabitants. Hungary was separated from her and recognized as an independent republic; while the new states, Czecho-Slovakia, Jugoslavia, and Poland were formed wholly or in part from her territory. Besides these losses in territory, Austria was forced to promise a large reparation payment.

616. Treaties with Bulgaria and Turkey. Bulgaria and Turkey who had fought on the side of the Central Powers, also lost portions of their territory. The result was a series of wars that broke out in this region that had not entirely ceased in 1922.

617. The Senate Rejects the Treaty. On July 10, 1919, immediately after his return from Europe, President Wilson presented to the Senate the Treaty of Peace, which included the Covenant of the League of Nations. A prolonged discussion followed in the Senate and the criticism which arose there was soon taken up by the newspapers of the country. To explain and defend the provisions of the Covenant which had met with such opposition, the President undertook a speech-making tour in September, 1919, visiting the principal cities of the central

and western states. In spite of his efforts, the treaty was rejected by the Senate and thus became the leading issue in the presidential campaign of 1920.

618. Two Constitutional Amendments. During the World War a campaign for national prohibition was waged with great vigor in the United States by the Anti-Saloon League and other agencies. Before 1917 twenty-four states had provided for local prohibition. In December, 1917, Congress submitted to all the states an amendment to the Constitution providing for national prohibition when ratified by thirty-six states. By June 16, 1919, the required number of states had ratified the amendment, which was added to the Constitution as the eighteenth.

On August 26, 1920, an amendment to the Constitution, providing for equal suffrage for men and women, was adopted. For many years prominent women of the United States had fought for the adoption of an amendment that would permit their voting on an equal footing with men. Several states had granted them the right to vote in elections of minor importance, but not until the Nineteenth Amendment was adopted did they have the privilege of voting on all questions of state and national importance.

619. Warren G. Harding Elected President. Governor James M. Cox, of Ohio, the Democratic candidate for the presidency, favored the adoption of the League of Nations. He promised the people of the country that if he was elected he would carry out the policies of Mr. Wilson. Senator Warren G. Harding, of Ohio, the Republican nominee, opposed the League. In the election of 1920, Senator Harding received an overwhelming majority of votes.

Questions

1. What did the Underwood Tariff do? What did the Sixteenth Amendment do? The Federal Reserve Act? The Seventeenth Amendment? The Parcels Post Act? The Tolls Repeal? Read the Sixteenth, Seventeenth, Eighteenth, and Nineteenth amendments to the Constitution.

2. What caused the trouble with Mexico? How was it settled?
3. Describe the development of the British Empire. Of Russia. Of Germany. Of France.
4. What was the Triple Entente? The Triple Alliance? Find on the map the proposed route for the Berlin-Bagdad Railroad. What was the immediate cause of the World War?
5. Who was elected to succeed Pope Pius X?
6. Why was it difficult for America to be neutral? What was the controversy with Great Britain? What did Germany decide to do? How did this affect America?
7. What is meant by the Army Draft? When before did the United States raise armies in this way? What was the Council of National Defense?
8. What did the war cost the United States? How was the money raised?
9. List some of the patriotic undertakings of the American people.
10. Tell the story of American fighting at Chateau-Thierry. At Belleau Woods. At St. Mihiel. At the Meuse-Argonne.
11. Tell the story of the "Fighting Outside the Lines." What did the Archbishops do? The Knights of Columbus? The National Catholic War Council? What are the aims of the National Catholic Welfare Council?
12. How was the League of Nations received in America?

Theme Topics

1. Write a letter to The Executive Secretary, National Catholic Welfare Council, 1312 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington, D. C., asking for information concerning the work of the organization. Prepare a ten-minute talk from the material you receive.
2. Write a letter to the American Red Cross, Washington, D. C., asking for information concerning the work done by social welfare organizations during the war. Prepare a ten-minute talk from the information you receive.

CHAPTER XLIII

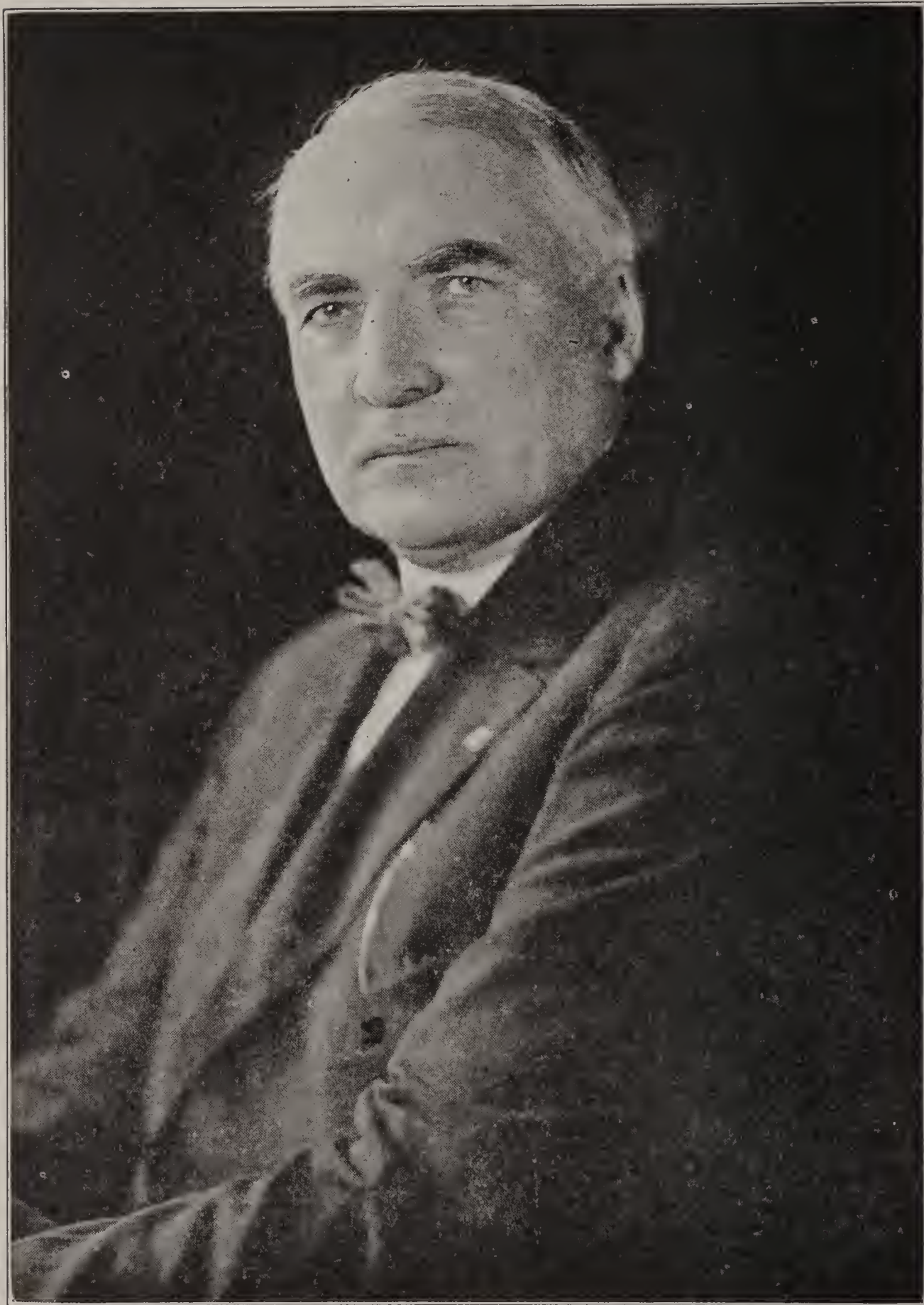
WARREN G. HARDING'S ADMINISTRATION

REPUBLICAN—1921-

620. The Twenty-ninth President. Warren G. Harding, the twenty-ninth President of the United States, was born in Corsica, Ohio, in 1865. He was graduated from Ohio Central College, and later entered the newspaper profession. Before his election to the presidency, he had served as state senator, lieutenant-governor, and as United States senator.

In his inaugural address (March 4, 1921), President Harding advised Congress to pass a declaration that the state of war with Germany and Austria be ended. Some months later (July, 1921), separate treaties were made with these nations and peace was officially declared, almost three years after the signing of the Armistice.

621. The Washington Conference. President Harding disapproved of the League of Nations, but he felt that something should be done to relieve all nations of the burden of maintaining immense armies and navies. The great powers had tremendous war debts to pay and none could afford to prepare for future war. Accordingly, the President invited the leading countries to send delegates to Washington, D. C., in November, 1921, to consider the ways and means by which armaments might be limited, and to discuss the problems of the Pacific and Far East. Besides the five great naval powers—the United States, Great Britain, Japan, France, and Italy—there were represented in the conference the smaller nations, Belgium, the Netherlands, Portugal, and China, who were particularly interested in the problems of the Pacific.



WARREN G. HARDING

622. The Five-Power Naval Treaty. On the opening day of the Conference (November 12), Charles E. Hughes, our Secretary of State, surprised the world by proposing that the three great naval powers, the United States, Great Britain, and Japan, should agree to end all competition in navy building. He explained that this could be accomplished by stopping the construction of large fighting ships for a period of ten years, and, further, by "scrapping," or sinking, certain of the older ships in each navy.

The delegates of the great powers expressed their approval in principle of the suggestions of Mr. Hughes, and the matter was submitted to a committee of naval experts, who worked out the details of the limitation program. A Five-Power Naval Treaty was finally agreed upon in which France and Italy joined the other powers. This provided that the United States and Great Britain each should have a naval tonnage of 525,000, Japan three-fifths as much, and France and Italy slightly more than one-third.

623. The Four-Power Treaty. Of greater importance was the Four-Power Treaty, the purpose of which was to remove the causes of disputes in the Pacific and Far East. This treaty was signed by the delegates of the United States, Great Britain, France, and Japan. It provides the following: (1) that these four powers shall respect the rights of each other pertaining to their insular possessions and dominions in the Pacific; (2) that if any controversy concerning these rights should develop, a conference of all four powers would be called to adjust it; (3) that if the rights should be threatened by any nation which is not a party of the treaty, the four powers would consult each other for the purpose of arranging a plan of action; (4) that the treaty shall be in force ten years, and after that period shall continue in force indefinitely unless any of the four powers wish to terminate it; and (5) that the ratification of this treaty would terminate the Anglo-Japanese alliance, which had been in force since 1911.

Besides these treaties, the five great powers came to an agreement regarding the limitation of submarines and the use of poisonous gas in war; and the nine powers signed two treaties relating to Chinese affairs: (1) a treaty by which the political independence and territorial integrity of China were guaranteed, and (2) a treaty dealing with the Chinese tariff.

The conference came to a close on February 6, 1922, and the delegates carried copies of the five treaties to their respective governments for ratification. President Harding submitted the treaties to the United States Congress, which, after a long and bitter discussion, accepted them.

624. Death of Pope Benedict XV. While the Disarmament Conference was in progress in Washington, D. C., the illustrious Pope Benedict XV died (January 22, 1922). Though his pontificate was short (November, 1914, to January, 1922), it is one of the most important in history, because it was during this period that the World War was fought. The Supreme Pontiff, as Shepherd and Teacher of all Christians, made it his chief duty to oppose the war and to exert his influence to restore peace to the world. Message after message he sent to the nations at war, begging them to put an end to the conflict. Though his efforts were disregarded, the Holy Father continued to implore for peace. His most important message to the belligerent nations was his peace note of August 1, 1917. In this he outlined the fundamental principles upon which permanent peace might be established. Statesmen throughout the world accepted his proposals, and five months later (January, 1918), when the President of the United States presented his peace program to Congress, among his "Fourteen Points" were many similar to those which had been set forth by the Pope.

Besides asking for peace, Pope Benedict XV sought to aid the victims of war. Three months after the outbreak of the war he asked that the permanently disabled prisoners of war be exchanged. Two months later, at his suggestion, the captive women, children, and men unfit for military service were re-

turned to their countries. For the benefit of sick and wounded prisoners he secured refuge in Switzerland and other neutral countries. To trace missing soldiers and other victims of war and to give them physical and moral assistance, he established an international bureau of communication. These are but a few of the many works of mercy which the Holy Father extended to all, regardless of nationality, race, or religion. He was ever ready to aid or to intervene, and thousands of lives were saved through his personal endeavors.

The great work accomplished by Pope Benedict XV, both during and after the war, led statesmen throughout the world to recognize the moral influence of the Vatican. As a result, the principal nations of the world have reopened diplomatic relations with the Holy See. Twenty-seven nations, including Great Britain, France, Russia, Spain, Belgium, Holland, and the important South American countries, now have representatives in the Vatican.

While the Pope labored to bring about peace in the world, he never forgot that one of his most important duties was the teaching of the Word of God. He was especially interested in the improvement of preaching among priests, in the spread of Foreign Missions, and in the promotion of the study of the Bible. During his pontificate a number of Saints were canonized, among whom was St. Joan of Arc, the heroine of France.

625. Election of Pius XI. On the eleventh day after the death of the illustrious Pope Benedict XV, the Cardinals, assembled in conclave, elected (February 2, 1922) as his successor, Cardinal Achille Ratti, the present Pope Pius XI. Shortly after his election, the new Pope stepped forth upon the exterior balcony of St. Peter's Cathedral and gave his blessing to the world. In appearing outside the walls of St. Peter's, the Supreme Pontiff departed from the rule which has been followed by his predecessors since 1870 when Rome passed out of the possession of the Holy See and the Pope became the voluntary "Prisoner of the Vatican."

Before his elevation to the Pontifical Throne, Pope Pius XI had won widespread attention. His writings on various historical and scientific subjects place him among the most learned men of the world. As Apostolic Visitor to Poland when that nation was torn by revolutions, his accomplishments were extraordinary. He gained for the Catholic Church a position of first



POPE PIUS XI

rank in the new republic; he distributed church lands among the peasants and gave much Vatican money for their relief. When the Bolsheviki armies besieged Warsaw and the foreign missionaries fled, he remained, serene, at his post. From the Bolsheviki government he secured the release of many distinguished prisoners. His services in Poland in this most difficult period of its history were conducted with such tact that the world recognized in the Apostolic Visitor a

diplomat of the highest order and greatest ability.

The new Pope has always been greatly interested in the United States and has often expressed his admiration for Washington, Lincoln, and Archbishop Carroll. Many Catholics of the United States who have visited Rome since the beginning of his pontificate have had the exceptional privilege of attending his Mass and receiving the Holy Eucharist from his hands.

Questions

1. When did America officially make peace with Germany and Austria?
2. What was accomplished by the Washington Conference? What are the most important provisions of the Four-Power Treaty?

3. What did Pope Pius XI do when he was elected? What important things had he done before his election?

4. From each of the Chronological Reviews choose two or three of the most important events, from the founding of America to the present day.

Theme Topics

1. The Election of Pope Pius XI.
2. Memorize the poem, "In Flanders Field," by John McCrae.
3. Write a three-paragraph essay on the Washington Conference. For material on this subject consult *The Literary Digest* for November and December, 1921.

CHAPTER XLIV

A CENTURY'S PROGRESS

626. Area and Extent. The United States within a century (1822-1922) has grown from a group of twenty-four states to a recognized "world power," composed of forty-eight unified states. The summer sun never sets upon its whole extent, for a new day dawns upon the forests of Maine before the night sets in on our westernmost islands. When our government began its existence under the Constitution it had jurisdiction over the present territory east of the Mississippi as far south as latitude 31° —an area of about eight hundred thousand square miles. Since then the present mainland of the United States has been increased by the following accessions: The Louisiana Purchase; Oregon; Florida; Texas; Mexican Territory; and the Gadsden Purchase. Thus the continental area of the United States, excluding Alaska, is now more than three million square miles (3,026,789). With the outlying possessions—Alaska, Hawaii, Porto Rico, the Philippine Islands, Tutuila, the Panama Canal Zone, Guam, Samoa, and the Virgin Islands—an area of far more than three million square miles (3,733,364), the total expanse of territory under the jurisdiction of the United States is over three and one-half million square miles (3,743,529). Alaska and Hawaii are our only territories. Our colonial possessions are governed as dependencies.

627. Population. After the Revolution the people of the United States numbered scarcely four million. Most of these were scattered along the eastern seaboard. At present (census of 1920) the United States proper has a population of over

one hundred five million (105,710,620). Together with the population of its outlying possessions, the total number is more than one hundred eighteen million (118,010,803), of which some twenty-three million (23,301,509) are Catholics.

628. Immigration. Our marked increase in population in recent years would have been impossible but for the great immigration from Europe. For many years after the Revolution, immigrants came in small numbers, and not before 1840 did they average one hundred thousand a year. But in the following decade, the poverty and oppression of the laboring people in Europe led to a vast influx of aliens. After 1870 so great was immigration to the United States that by 1900 the country had added nearly twenty million foreigners to its population, most of whom settled in New England, in the great cities (especially New York and Chicago), and in the Northwest. Very few settled in the South except in Texas; the negroes as competitive laborers kept them out of what was otherwise a most promising section.

At first these aliens came largely from the British Isles, Germany, and the Scandinavian peninsula. They were intelligent, enterprising, and active in the development of the great agricultural states of the West. In recent years, however, a less desirable element from southern Europe and eastern Asia (China) has found its way to our shores.



A FILIPINO HOUSE IN A TREE-TOP

Congress has, from time to time, amended our immigration laws by enacting measures which prevent undesirables from entering the United States. One of the most stringent of these measures was adopted in 1891; since then a number of similar measures have restricted immigration. At the session of April, 1921, Congress passed a bill providing that "the number of aliens of any nationality who may be admitted under the immigration laws of the United States in any fiscal year shall

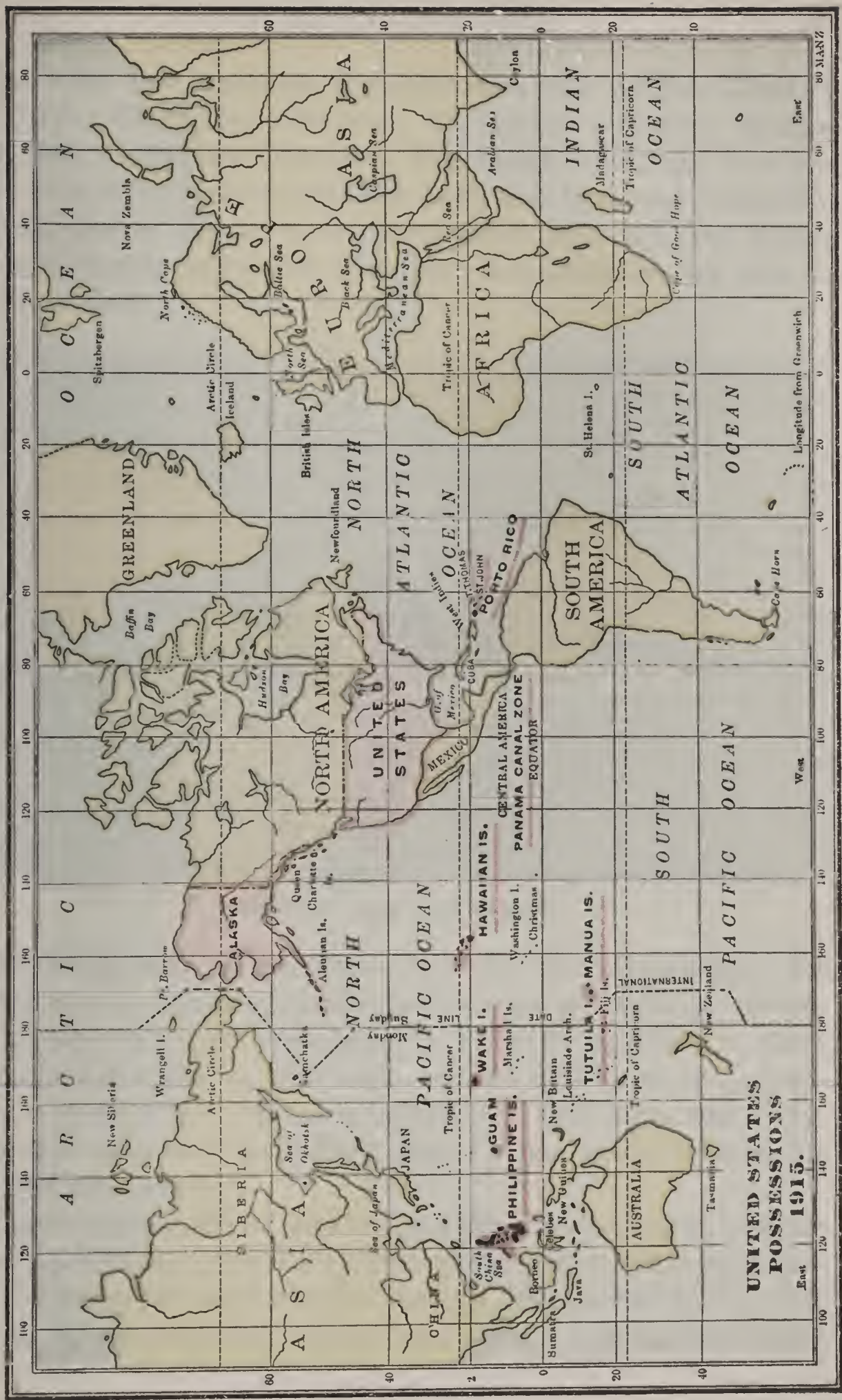


IMMIGRANTS AT ELLIS ISLAND

be limited to 3 per centum of foreign-born persons of such nationality resident in the United States as determined by the census of 1910." The total number of immigrants admitted to the country, including the figures for 1921, is 34,435,332.

629. Cities and Towns. The growth and increase of our cities and towns is

truly marvelous. In 1820 four per cent of the population of the United States lived in cities, only five of which contained more than ten thousand inhabitants. The city dwellers at present (census of 1920) number half of the total population. New York, our metropolis, has a population of over five and one-half millions (5,620,048), and among the cities of the world is second only to London. Chicago, our second largest city, numbers over two million inhabitants (2,701,705) and ranks fourth among the world's cities in population; while our third largest city, Philadelphia, numbers over one and one-half million (1,823,779). Nine other cities have a population



of between five hundred thousand and one million—Detroit (993,678), Cleveland (796,841), St. Louis (772,897), Boston (748,060), Baltimore (733,826), Pittsburgh (588,343), Los Angeles (576,673), Buffalo (566,775), and San Francisco (506,676). Detroit, owing chiefly to the automobile industry, has during the last decade advanced from the thirteenth largest city to fourth in rank.



THE NEW YORK WATERFRONT

630. Industries. Agriculture, still the chief industry of the United States, has developed in astounding proportions. Farmers, advancing in the knowledge of scientific agriculture, have increased the quantity and improved the quality of their products. Gravel roads, railroads, telephones, and rural mail deliveries—all convince the farmer that he has many advantages over the city dweller.

Manufacturing, in its infancy in 1789, has increased in enormous proportions, so that at present we are sending manufactured articles not only to the leading European nations, but also to South America, Africa, and Asia. Our factories give

employment to over five million persons and produce billions of dollars' worth of goods each year.

Commerce, so restricted in 1789, has kept pace with the industries of agriculture and manufacturing. Our country has now an extensive import and export trade, and in these respects is today one of the leading nations of the world.

The foreign trade of the United States Merchant Marine has increased from 2,379,396 tons in 1860 to 9,924,694 tons in 1920; its coastwide trade, for the same period, increased from 2,644,867 tons to 6,357,706 tons.

631. Inventions and Discoveries. The progress of industries in the United States gave rise to an unrivaled activity in inventions, especially of labor-saving machinery. In 1791 the patent office at Washington issued its first patent, one for making potash for the manufacture of soap; it has since issued more than a million patents.

632. Light from Gas. David Melville of Newport, Rhode Island, attracted by developments made along the lines of gas lighting in England, installed in his house and in the streets in front of it (1806), the first gas lights used in the United States.

633. The Sewing Machine. After years of toil and poverty, Elias Howe (1845) succeeded in completing the first sewing machine, which has since been perfected by Wheeler, Wilson, Singer, and other inventors.

634. Vulcanization of Rubber. In 1839 Charles Goodyear of New Haven, Connecticut, accidentally discovered a process by which rubber, mixed with sulphur, subjected to great heat, could be manufactured into waterproof goods, both durable and elastic. Considering the great demand for rubber manufactures, Goodyear's invention may be ranked as one of the most important of the century.

635. The Reaper. The old-time methods of reaping grain by means of the sickle, scythe, or cradle, have been revolutionized by the invention of the McCormick reaper. Crude grain

cutters have been superseded by the twine binder harvester and, in some of the large farming districts, by the combined harvester and thresher. The last mentioned is a huge machine driven by steam or electricity which makes its way through vast fields of standing grain, leaving behind it the grain threshed, measured, and neatly bagged.

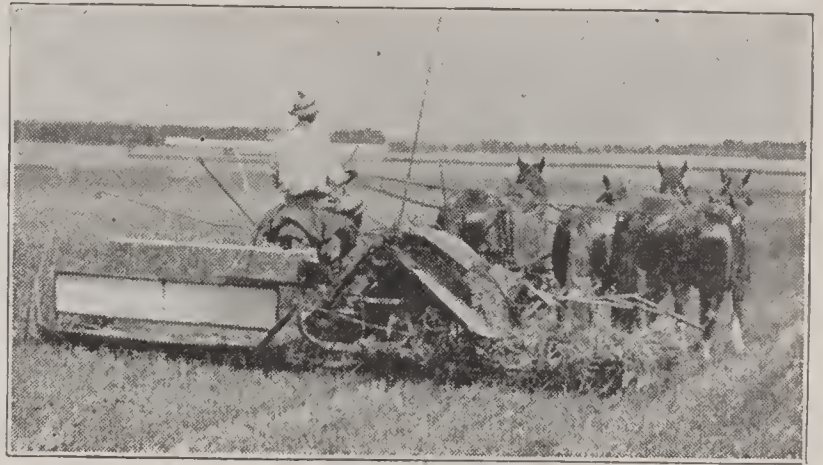
.636. The Electric Street Car. The first street cars used were drawn by horses, but electricity has converted our horse cars

into "trolley cars." These not only convey persons from one part of the city to another, but also connect many of our towns and cities.

637. Illumination and Heating. Various forms of electric lighting have taken the place of the old-time tallow candle, oil lamp, and more recent gas jet. The use of electricity for lighting streets and houses was first put into practice by Thomas A. Edison of Menlo Park, New Jersey (1878).

Open grates and fireplaces, or open Franklin stoves for burning wooden logs or soft coal, were long used for warming private houses. After 1835 anthracite stoves came rapidly into use, both for heating and cooking purposes. These were developed into various forms of hot air and steam furnaces. Since 1893 electric radiators have come into use. The age of steam is being fast replaced by the wonder-achieving age of electricity.

638. Telegraphy. In 1866 Cyrus W. Field laid the first cable in the Atlantic. A final link in the chain of communication uniting the nations of the world was the Pacific cable, completed in 1903. It extends from San Francisco to Hong-

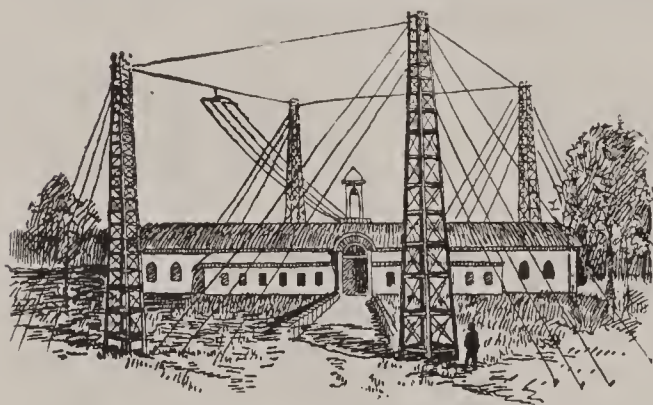


A MODERN REAPER

Kong by way of Hawaii and Manila. The first message, sent by President Roosevelt, flashed around the world in less than five minutes. The Marconi wireless telegraph by which messages are transmitted through the air was first used between the United States and Europe in 1903, when President Roosevelt sent a wireless message from Cape Cod, Massachusetts, across the Atlantic to King Edward VII of England.

The invention of wireless telegraphy cannot be credited to any one mind, although Marconi, an Italian, was the first to perfect the appliance used in space telegraphy and the first to obtain a patent for it. He visited the United States in 1899.

More than one hundred shore stations for sending wireless telegrams have been established in the United States and nearly two hundred for receiving such telegrams are found on our naval vessels. All the great ocean steamships and a large number of the vessels on interior waters are now fitted out with wireless instruments.



A WIRELESS STATION

Great improvements in wireless telegraphy have taken place within the past ten years. Long-distance radio stations which can signal to any part of the world have been established. During the World War the American Army built near Bordeaux, France, a large radio station which carried on direct communications with the government at Washington. The radio has been so perfected that lectures and concerts given in Washington can be heard in San Francisco. Owners of small radio sets can sit in their homes and hear noted singers, preachers, and lecturers from vast distances.

639. The Telephone—The Typewriter. In 1877 Alexander Graham Bell put into practical use a telephone line between Salem and Boston, a distance of sixteen miles. The same year,

Elisha Gray succeeded in setting up a line between Chicago and Milwaukee, a distance of eighty-five miles.

The first practical American typewriting machine was invented by Charles L. Sholes, in 1868. Since that time, the machine has come into use in almost every office in the country. Large business houses use not only the typewriter, but also adding machines, billing machines, and duplicating machines that greatly increase efficiency.

640. The Phonograph—The Cinematograph. One of the first of the numerous inventions of Thomas A. Edison was the phonograph (1879). This remarkable instrument records and reproduces exactly the human voice or the tones of any musical instrument. In recent years the phonograph has been widely used in many schools.

In 1894 Mr. Edison invented the cinematograph—an instrument which reproduces moving pictures from photographs. Not only have the people of the country enjoyed the “moving pictures” made possible by this invention, but many children have more easily and perfectly learned their lessons through the aid of pictures adapted to school use. During the World War moving pictures were used both for the pleasure of the men in the Army, and also to instruct them in the proper ways of marching, using the bayonet, and operating cannon, etc.

641. The Automobile. To the French is due the credit for the invention of the automobile. While it is used chiefly as a pleasurable means of travel, the usefulness of the automobile fire engine, the motor trucks and wagons, and the motor farm implements cannot be overestimated. During the World War the automobile and automobile truck played a large part in supplying the soldiers with provisions.

642. Aviation. The first promising attempt to make an airplane was made by the German scientist, Otto Lilienthal (1891), who devised a glider without any engine. The invention has since been improved upon by both Europeans and Americans. Foremost among the latter may be mentioned the Wright

brothers of Dayton, Ohio, who were the first to use successfully a motor-driven air machine.

643. Postal Service. It was considered a great achievement when Benjamin Franklin, Postmaster-General of the Colonies (1754), caused the mail to be delivered three times a week. At present ten billion pieces of mail matter are carried annually at two cents and less per ounce, over thousands of miles of railroad and steamboat lines, and delivered from seventy thousand post offices.

644. Our Great Railway System—Standard Time. The twenty-three miles of experimental road of 1827, in the building of which the venerable Charles Carroll turned the first spadeful of earth, have since increased to some eighteen hundred railroad lines, with a total of two hundred thousand miles.

In order to secure uniform time over long areas, railroad companies of the United States agreed to make a change of one hour in their time for every fifteen degrees of longitude, giving the same time to all places within each time belt. This is called Standard Time, or Railroad Time. By this system the United States is divided into four sections, or time belts, called Eastern Time, Central Time, Mountain Time, and Pacific Time. The local time of the Central meridian of each belt is made the standard time for the entire belt. The boundaries of these time belts are somewhat irregular, because railways select well known places for time changes, as, for instance, Buffalo, Pittsburgh, and Atlanta, at which cities the change is made from Eastern to Central time.

645. Corporations and Trusts. Since the Civil War, many smaller business enterprises have merged into combinations called "corporations," or "trusts," which do business on a large scale. These trusts monopolize the trade of the country, and control not only the output of the necessities of life, but also their prices; they crush out smaller rivals by fixing destructive prices or by other unfair means; they are, to a great extent, the cause of the extremes of wealth and poverty found in large

cities. Because of these evils, Federal and State legislation has been directed against them. The Sherman Anti-trust Act (1890) prohibits all combinations in restraint of trade that engage in interstate commerce, but, in spite of this Act, trusts still exist.

646. Reform Movements. In the last generation there has been a perceptible advance in the manner of governing certain of our charitable institutions. American schools for the blind and the deaf are among the best in the world; homes for delinquent children have become effective schools of mental and moral training instead of, as formerly, reformatory prisons; homes for orphan children may be found all over the country. Nearly every large city has a hospital conducted under the most healthful and sanitary conditions, in which the poor may receive, free of charge, medical treatment of the most advanced character.

647. Women Suffrage. As early as 1825 Frances Wright advocated the right of women to vote. In 1848 the first Women's Right Convention met in Seneca Falls, New York, where plans for gaining the vote were drawn up. Though little was accomplished at this time, the movement continued, under the leadership of Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Lucretia Mott, Martha C. Wright, Mary A. McClintock, Margaret Fuller, and Lucy Stone. Gradually some of the western states gave the women the right to vote, but no national provision for women suffrage was made for many years. In 1878 Senator Sargent of California presented to Congress a proposal to amend the Constitution to provide for woman suffrage. The amendment was defeated, but year after year prominent women brought it up and kept the question alive. In January, 1918, the House of Representatives passed a suffrage amendment, which was adopted, when Tennessee, the thirty-sixth state, voted for it.

648. Social Rank. In the progress of our historical studies we may have noted that the lines of social rank so distinctly drawn during colonial times have disappeared. Instead we find distinct lines drawn between the capitalist and the laborer. Though this distinction exists, the American people will not

tolerate abuses when once these abuses have been exposed to view.

649. The Negro. Many of the negroes have taken advantage of the educational facilities afforded them, and some remarkable individuals, as Booker T. Washington and Frederick Douglass, prove that the race is capable of great development.

Booker T. Washington, born a slave in Virginia, acquired an education at Hampton Institute. While an instructor in that school, he was employed by the state of Alabama to organize a normal school for colored people at Tuskegee. He opened the school in an old church and a shanty with an enrollment of thirty pupils. The school has since prospered greatly. Its object is to give the negroes a practical education along lines of trade and industry. Booker T. Washington became noted for his ability as a public speaker and as the author of a number of valuable publications. He died in 1915, and Robert R. Moton took his place as the leader of the race.

Frederick Douglass, reared as a slave on a Maryland plantation, escaped to the North at the age of twenty-one and there gained reputation as a public speaker in behalf of the anti-slavery cause. He also gained fame as an orator in England. For many years he edited an anti-slavery paper in New York and after the Civil War became active in national politics.

The negroes of the United States adopted, as slaves, the religion of their former owners, who were mainly Baptists and Methodists. Hence, Catholic negroes are few and live chiefly in those states originally settled by Catholics, as Maryland and Louisiana. The total number of colored Catholics is only about two hundred thousand.

650. Elementary Education. The United States has been among the foremost countries of the world in educating its citizens. The American schools, organized by the first generation of settlers in New Netherland and New England, as also the private Catholic schools founded by the Maryland settlers, have many times multiplied in number and improved in quality and

extent of instruction. Thus the means of an elementary education have been placed within convenient reach of every child.

651. Catholic Elementary Education. The Catholic Church recognizes that religion must be the supreme principle in education, as it is in life. If, therefore, the so-called secular branches of knowledge are taught without references to religion, as is the case in our public schools, she feels that the "one thing necessary" (Luke 10:42), the most important of the educational branches, is being omitted in the training of the child. Hence, she tries to supply this defect by establishing schools under her own control, the so-called Catholic, or parochial schools, in which all the branches of the public schools are taught, and, in addition, religion and religious morality.

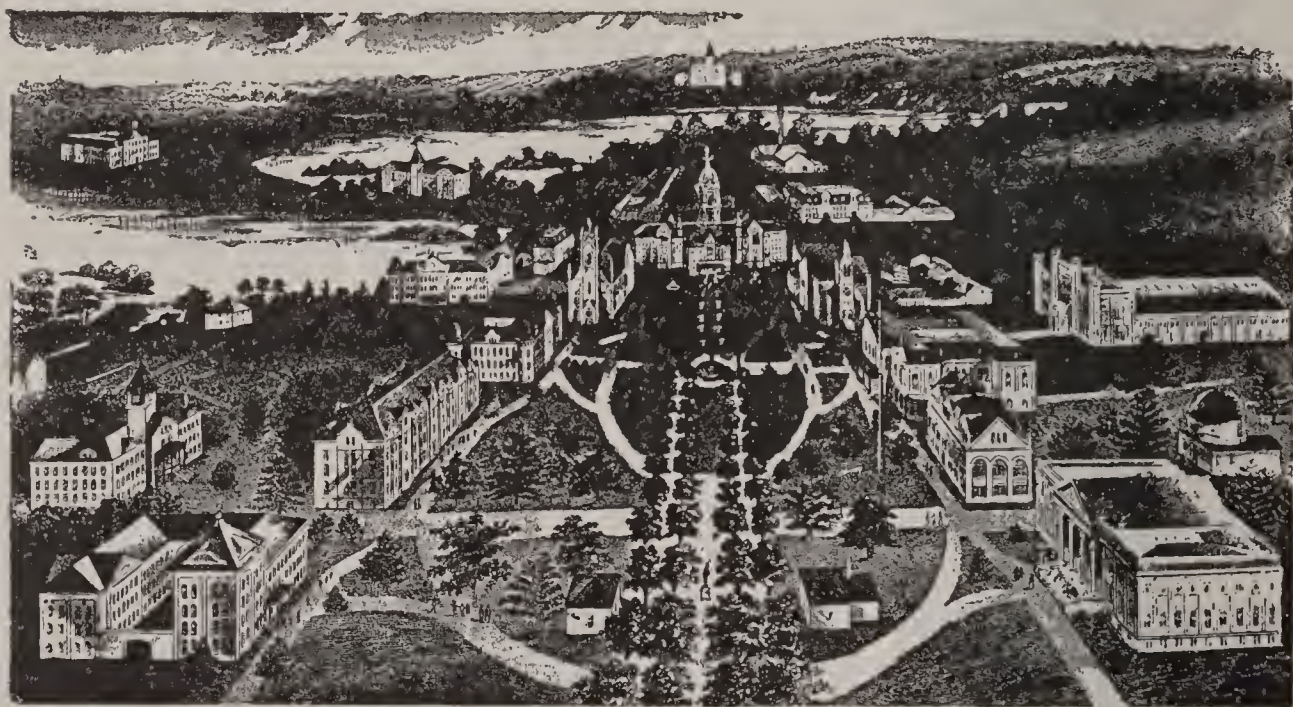
According to the "Catholic Directory" of 1919, the total number of parish schools in the United States is over six thousand (6,048), with an attendance of over one million (1,771,418). This number of pupils is divided among some thirty-one thousand teachers, fully nine-tenths of whom are Religious. These religious teachers belong to about two hundred and seventy-five distinct teaching bodies, including teaching brotherhoods.

652. Catholic Negro and Indian Schools. One hundred and nineteen Catholic schools accommodate eleven thousand Catholic negro children of the United States. The number of Catholic Indians in the United States is about one hundred thousand. Among these are established sixty-three Catholic schools, with an attendance of nearly five thousand Indian pupils. About six thousand Catholic Indian pupils are educated in the government schools.

Under the so-called "Peace Policy" inaugurated by President Grant (1870), about eighty thousand Catholic Indians passed from Catholic to Protestant control. Some years later the Bureau of Catholic Indian Missions, inaugurated by the government, provided for the support of Catholic Indian Schools. The appropriations of the Bureau were discontinued (1900), but many of the schools were kept up by the contri-

butions of charitable societies and by donations. Since President Roosevelt's administration a considerable allowance has again been made to certain Catholic schools by the government through the Catholic Indian Bureau. This allowance is taken from the funds of the tribes who send their children to these schools. In 1889 Mother Catharine Drexel founded the community of Sisters of the Blessed Sacrament for Indians and Colored People, which has successfully labored in behalf of Catholic Indian education.

653. Catholic Higher Educational Institutions. The founding of Catholic institutions for higher learning kept pace with the



NOTRE DAME UNIVERSITY

progress of religious toleration. Many Catholic secondary or high schools, colleges, and universities, have been opened to the Catholic student. In 1789 there was but one Catholic educational institution in the land. Today according to the "Catholic Directory" of 1919 there are in the country one hundred thirteen ecclesiastical seminaries with an attendance of over eight thousand students, two hundred thirty colleges for boys, and seven hundred ten academies for girls.

The total number of pupils in Catholic educational institutions of all kinds in the United States is over one and one-half million (1,779,709).

Among the noted Catholic institutions of higher learning may be mentioned: Georgetown University, District of Columbia (1787), in charge of the Jesuits; Notre Dame University, South Bend, Indiana (1842), in charge of the Fathers of the Holy Cross; Creighton University, Omaha, Nebraska (1879), in charge of the Jesuits; and the Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C. (1889).

In 1912 hundreds of Georgetown's sons from all parts of the Union gathered around their "Alma Mater" on the occasion of the unveiling of the statue of John Carroll, S. J., the first Archbishop of Baltimore. The statue is a gift of the University Alumni Association, and represents Father Carroll in his Jesuit habit, sitting in an attitude of deep thought, as if marveling at the present growth of the little college he founded over one hundred years ago. The late Chief Justice White, Georgetown's most distinguished son, in words as earnest as they were well chosen, presented the University with the statue of its founder.

The Catholic University of America was established by the American bishops through the liberality of Miss Mary Caldwell. It is managed by officers under rules laid down by a board of trustees composed of bishops, priests, and laymen. The president of the board is the Chancellor of the University, and this office is held by the Archbishop of Baltimore.

654. State Institutions of Higher Learning. Particularly notable is the rapid increase in the institutions of higher learning. Agricultural colleges supported by appropriations of Congress have been opened in most of the states.

Horace Mann established in Massachusetts (1840) the first Normal School in the United States. The success of his work stimulated other states to establish similar schools for the training and education of teachers. Normal schools were

founded in almost all the free states before 1860, and at present scarcely a state can be found which does not contain more than one school for this purpose. Meantime, many of the states gradually built up institutions of higher learning, both professional and scientific.

Among the colleges and universities of colonial fame may be mentioned: Harvard University of Cambridge, Massachusetts (1636); William and Mary College of Williamsburg, Virginia (1693); Yale University of New Haven, Connecticut (1701); Princeton University of Princeton, New Jersey (1746); Columbia University of New York (1754); the University of Pennsylvania, founded by Franklin in Philadelphia (1755); Brown University of Providence, Rhode Island (1764), and Dartmouth College of Hanover, New Hampshire (1769). Among the foremost colleges founded since the Revolution may be mentioned: the University of Virginia, founded by Jefferson in 1819; the University of Michigan, organized in 1842; the University of Wisconsin, in 1850; Washington University at St. Louis, in 1857; Cornell University in New York, in 1868; Johns Hopkins at Baltimore, in 1876. The Troy Female Seminary, New York (1821), now called the Emma Willard School in honor of its founder, was the first public institution for the higher education of women. Not until within the last sixty years were the higher schools open to women. Since then many colleges have been founded exclusively for their education.

655. Education After School Days. For the encouragement of study after school days, literary and scientific organizations have been formed, prominent among which are those held on the shores of Lake Chautauqua in western New York. University extension courses, lecture lyceums, and literary clubs are also doing very valuable educational work. The Catholic Educational Association, composed of Catholic educators and other persons interested in Catholic education in the United States, holds each year a convention in some one of the larger cities. The object of the association and its conventions is to promote

by study, conference, and discussion, the thoroughness of Catholic educational work, and to help the cause of Catholic education by the publication and circulation of such literary matter as shall further these ends.

656. Medicine. Great progress has also been made in medical science, particularly surgery. The use of anaesthetics in painful operations was begun in 1844 by Horace Wells of Hartford, who used nitrous oxide. A few years later Charles Jackson and William Morton of Boston introduced the use of sulphuric ether.

657. The Art of Music. In music the United States has made only a beginning. Its musical productions show no national characteristic, but rather bear the impress of foreign music, particularly the German, French, and Italian. However, a number of our great American composers have written very creditable works. Foremost among these are: John Knowles Paine (1839-1908), a native of Maine, who is our earliest composer in large instrumental forms; Edward A. McDowell (1861-1908) of New York, a wide-famed pianist and composer; and George W. Chadwick (1854-) of Massachusetts. Other well-known American composers are James Dunn Parker, George E. Whiting (a Catholic), Dudley Buck, William H. Gilchrist, Horatio Parker, William Mason, and Mrs. H. H. A. Beach.

658. Motu Proprio of Pope Pius X. The first and most urgent condition which the Catholic Church imposes in regard to her music is that it be in conformity with the place, time, and purpose of Divine worship; that it be sacred, not theatrical. Accordingly, Pope Pius X issued on November 2, 1903, instruction on sacred music in churches and at the same time ordered the authentic Gregorian chant to be used everywhere. He also caused choir books to be printed under the supervision of a special commission. Thus was occasioned the beginning of a reform in church music, which, however, is not yet universal. Since parochial schools must do the preparatory work and lay the foundation for good church singing, the Holy

Father's decree has occasioned new efforts and activity toward the systematic study of vocal music in these schools.

659. Architecture. The architecture of the United States prior to the Revolution was generally English in its origin, except in the regions which were essentially Spanish in their settlement and development. Examples of Spanish architecture are the Cathedral of St. Augustine, the fort now called



THE WHITE HOUSE AT WASHINGTON

Marion, in Florida, and the buildings of the Spanish missions, to each of which, as a rule, a church is attached. Traces of French influences are apparent in New Orleans, especially in the Ursuline convent, now the Archbishop's palace. Dutch and Swedish influence is apparent in such structures as the Van Cortlandt Manor on the Hudson, built in 1681. The early Constitutional period is noted for the erection of many monumental buildings, such as the old Capitol at Washington and

the State House at Boston. Toward the middle of the nineteenth century (1815-1876), architecture, save in the building of churches, declined. During the last quarter of a century, however, interest in it was revived by architects of foreign training like Richard M. Hunt and Henry H. Richardson. The present tendency in the United States is toward the French renaissance for residences and hotels, and the Gothic and Romanesque for churches. Strictly speaking, America has no distinctly national architecture except in the colossal office buildings of the great cities.

660. Painting. American art remained under British influence until long after the Revolution, and American artists spent the greater part of their lives in Europe. In the nineteenth century, however (1825), American painting assumed a more national tone under the influence of such artists as Thomas Cole, one of the foremost landscape painters of the Rocky Mountain scenery, and Bierstadt, Hill, Hubbard, and Moran.

During the latter part of the nineteenth century there was a large number of distinguished artists in America. Among them were George Miller (1822-1884), Eastman Johnson (1824-1906), George Inness (1825-1894), James McNeill Whistler (1834-1903), John La Farge (1835-1910), Homer Martin (1836-1897), Winslow Homer (1836-1910), Edwin A. Abbey (1852-1911), and James Carroll Beckwith (1852-1917). Among our best-known artists who have died within the past three years are included A. H. Wyant (1894-1921), Kenyon Cox (1856-1919), and Abbott Thayer (1849-1921).

The most distinguished painter in America today is John Singer Sargent (1865-), whose fine portraits have won for him international fame. Other well-known artists of today include Benson, Brush, Blashfield, Beaux, Garber, Miller, Vedder, and Walker.

661. Sculpture. The development of American sculpture began with the productions of Horatio Greenough of Boston, one of whose most famous works was the half-draped statue of

Washington which long stood before the national Capitol. Hiram Powers (1805-1873) did work similar to Greenough's. Thomas Crawford (1813-1857), a pupil of Thorwaldsen, is known as the designer of the bronze "Liberty" surmounting the dome of the Capitol at Washington. Henry Kirk Brown (1814-1886) was the first whose productions bore a distinct national character, as typified in his equestrian statue of George Washington in Union Square, New York. Another sculptor, noted for his native tendencies, was Erastus Dow Palmer (1817-1904). His "Angels of the Sepulcher" shows the artist's strength in religious subjects. The most prominent figure thus far among American sculptors is Augustus Saint-Gaudens (1848-1907). The brilliant creations of this artist are equal to those of renowned European sculptors. His Shaw memorial relief at Boston and the statue of Lincoln at Chicago are remarkable works of art, and his "General Sherman" in Central Park, New York, places him in the first rank of American sculptors. The most important sculptors of animal life are the late Edward Keymys, E. C. Potter, and A. C. Proctor. Solon H. Borglum (1868-1922) was well known for works of the Indian, the cowboy, and the broncho.

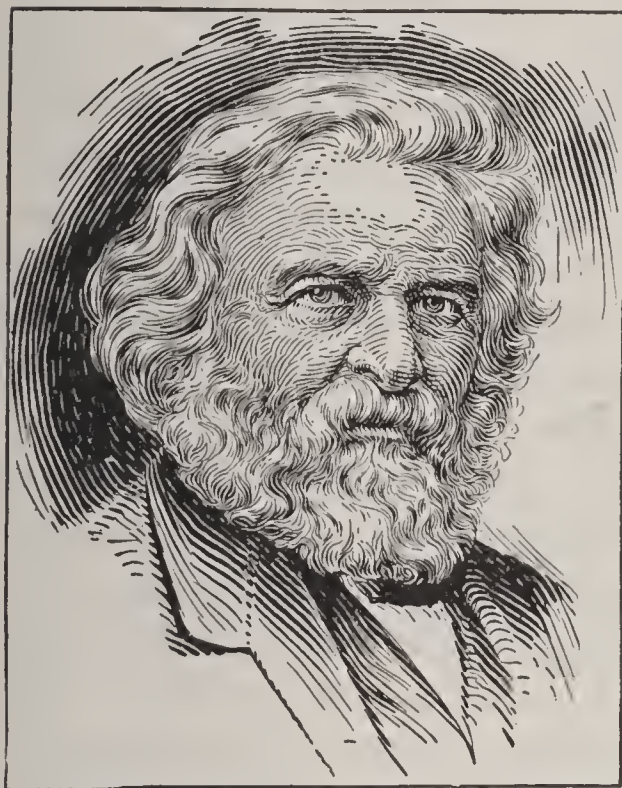
Among prominent sculptors of the present day are Gutzon Borglum, brother of Solon, Cyrus E. Dallin, George Barnard, Daniel Chester French, Frederick W. MacMonnies, A. A. Weinmann, Miss Ann Hyatt, Paulanship, and Lorado Taft.

662. American Authors. Washington Irving (1783-1859), New York, the "Father of American Literature," was the first author to attract attention abroad. He is noted for his *Knickerbocker History of New York*, the *Sketch Book*, and his *Life of Christopher Columbus*. Irving and James Fenimore Cooper (1789-1851), New York, were the first distinguished authors to choose American subjects for their writings. The latter, our first novelist, wrote *The Spy* and many other novels, some of which are based upon the history of our country.

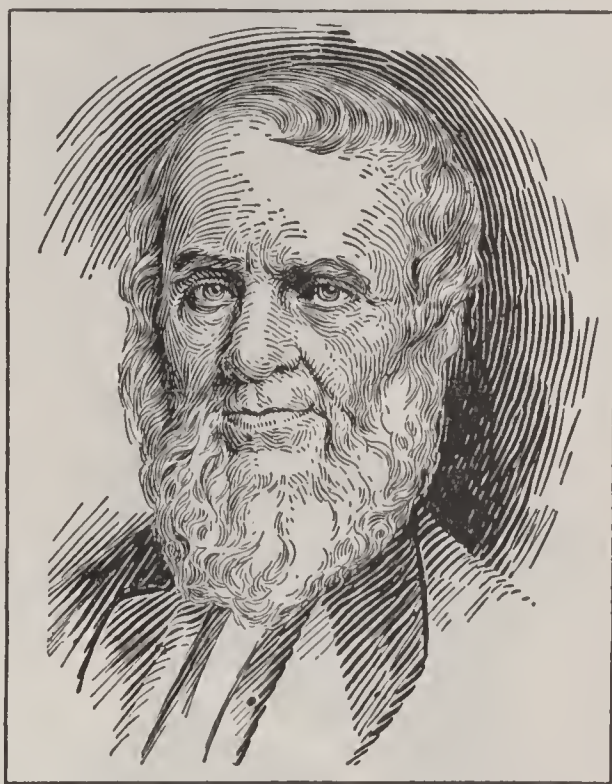
William Cullen Bryant (1794-1878), Massachusetts, the "Poet of Nature," sometimes called the American Wordsworth,

came into fame by his well-known poem, "Thanatopsis," written when he was only nineteen. He is associated with the "Knickerbocker School," a group of writers who, during the first quarter of the nineteenth century, made New York the literary center of our country. Some of his poems betray anti-Catholic prejudices.

Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803-1882), Massachusetts, the "Sage of Concord," became known by his essays as one of the great masters of English prose. From the standpoint of Catho-



HENRY W. LONGFELLOW



JOHN G. WHITTIER

licity, however, some of his ideas are obscure and unsound. He was color-blind, as it were, to the spiritual and supernatural.

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow (1807-1882), Maine, our most loved poet, wrote even before his graduation from college a number of poems, among which may be mentioned the "Hymn of the Moravian Nuns." Some of his most famous longer poems are "Evangeline," the Indian tale "Hiawatha," and the Puritan narrative "The Courtship of Miles Standish."

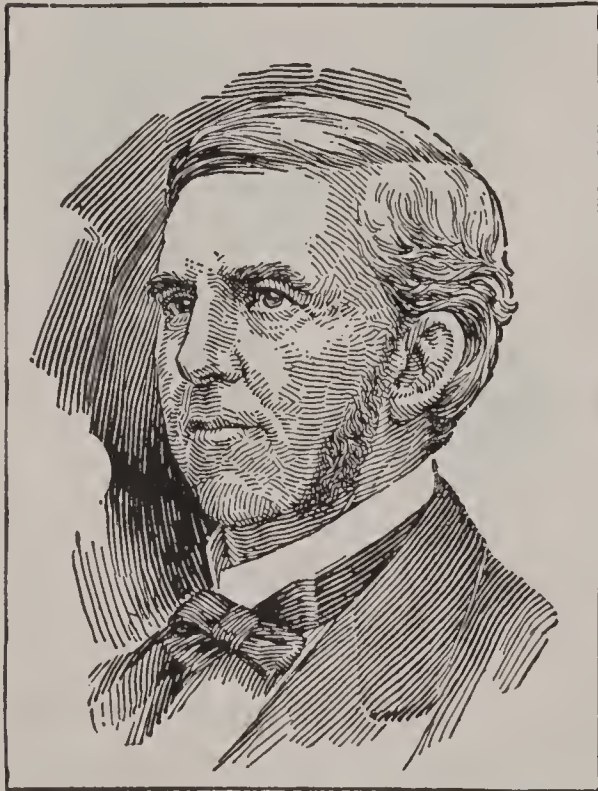
John Greenleaf Whittier (1807-1892), Massachusetts, the "Quaker Poet," and the most thoroughly American of all our

poets, is, next to Longfellow, our most popular verse writer. Among his best known works are "The Barefoot Boy," "Snow-Bound," "Maud Muller," and "Barbara Frietchie." In some of his poems, Whittier, like Bryant, exhibits evidences of anti-Catholic prejudices.

James Russell Lowell (1819-1891), Massachusetts, is noted as a poet, essayist, and critic. Among his writings may be mentioned "Indian Summer Reverie," "To the Dandelion," "The Vision of Sir Launfal," and the "Biglow Papers."

Edgar Allan Poe (1809-1849), Massachusetts, the most imaginative of American writers, is best known as a poet by "The Raven," "The Bells," "The Haunted Palace," and "Annabel

Lee." He is the originator of our modern short story. Prominent among his short stories are "The Fall of the House of Usher" and "The Gold-Bug."



OLIVER W. HOLMES

Oliver Wendell Holmes (1809-1894), Massachusetts, one of our most brilliant humorists, is distinguished both in prose and poetry. His stirring poem "Old Ironsides" saved from wreckage the *Constitution*. The work, however, which won him most fame was *The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table*, which consists of a series of essays at once philosophical,

imaginative, and amusing. A similar work is *The Professor at the Breakfast Table*.

Nathaniel Hawthorne (1804-1864), Massachusetts, the greatest of American romancers, or story-writers, is the author of *Twice Told Tales*, *The Scarlet Letter*, *The House of the Seven Gables*, *Grandfather's Chair*, etc.

Lew Wallace (1827-1905), Indiana, is noted as the author of *Ben Hur, a Tale of the Christ*, one of the most popular novels written during the last quarter of the nineteenth century.

Orestes A. Brownson (1803-1876), Vermont, an able American reviewer and philosopher, devoted his pen with heroic energy to the cause of the Catholic Church, to which he became a convert in 1844. His principal productions are *The American Republic* and *The Convert*. In the latter work he relates his religious wanderings in succession as a Congregationalist, a Presbyterian, a Universalist, a Rationalist, and a Socialist, until he found satisfaction in the solution of his doubts and solace for his troubles in the bosom of the Catholic Church.

Archbishop Hughes (1797-1864), New York, is known not only as a most valiant defender of the Catholic Church when it was struggling for a footing in a rather hostile community, but also as the champion of the "school question." His lectures, sermons, and pamphlets on historic and doctrinal subjects commanded general attention.

Reverend Abram J. Ryan (1839-1886), Virginia, the "Poet-Priest of the South"—Catholic chaplain in the Confederate army during the Civil War—is famed for many beautiful poems, among which are "The Conquered Banner," "Erin's Flag," and "The Sword of Robert Lee."

Brother Azarias (1847-1893), New York, was a member of the Christian Brothers. Among his writings may be mentioned "Development of English Thought," "Aristotle and the Christian Church," "Books and Reading," "Philosophy of Literature."

Alice Cary (1820-1871) and her sister, Phoebe Cary (1824-1871), Ohio, are the best women poets America has produced. Among their best verses are "Poems of Faith, Hope, and Charity," "Pictures from Memory," "Order for a Picture."

Harriet Beecher Stowe (1812-1896), Connecticut, gained renown by her anti-slavery novel, *Uncle Tom's Cabin*. Her overdrawn pictures did much to influence the North against the South.

Anna Hanson Dorsey (1815-1896), District of Columbia, was one of the pioneers of Catholic fiction in the United States. Among her works are *Palms*, *Oriental Pearls*, *May Brooke*, *Warp and Woof*.

Mary A. Sadlier (1820-1903), Ireland, a Catholic, and an indefatigable writer, is best known by her novels, *The Blakes and Flannigans* (dealing with the school question), *Confederate Chieftains*, *Bessie Conway*, and *Aunt Honor's Keepsake*.

Helen Hunt Jackson (1831-1885), Massachusetts, known by her pen name "H. H.," has by her story, *Romona*, won a prominent name in American literature.

Louisa M. Alcott (1832-1888), Pennsylvania, a most popular writer of her day, won fame as the author of *Little Men*, *Little Women*, and *An Old-Fashioned Girl*.

663. Our Familiar Historians. William H. Prescott (1797-1859), Massachusetts, is well known as the author of *Ferdinand and Isabella*, *Conquest of Mexico*, *Conquest of Peru*. Religious prejudices, however, greatly mar the reliability of his otherwise excellent works.

George Bancroft (1800-1891), Massachusetts, has left a great work in a *History of the United States*. As a literary production, it ranks high, but from a religious point of view it is objectionable, owing to the expressions of bigotry against the Catholic religion.

Most Reverend Martin John Spaulding (1810-1872), Kentucky, the seventh Archbishop of Baltimore, is famous for *Sketches of the Early Catholic Missions of Kentucky*, *History of the Protestant Reformation in all Countries*, and *Miscellanea*.

John L. Motley (1814-1877), Massachusetts, is best known for his classic *History of the Rise of the Dutch Republic*.

Francis Parkman (1823-1893), Massachusetts, is the author of *The Conspiracy of Pontiac*, *The Pioneers of France in the New World*, *The Jesuits in North America*, and *La Salle, or the Discovery of the Great West*. For the facts of the Jesuit missions, Parkman is entirely reliable; but as a Catholic critic has

well remarked, "Of the motives which governed the missionaries, of their faith and charity, as well as of their whole interior spiritual life, he understands less than did the untutored Indian."

John Gilmary Shea (1824-1892), New York, was a Catholic whose world-wide fame as a scholar and historian is based on his *Discovery and Exploration of the Mississippi Valley*, *The History of the Catholic Missions Among the Indian Tribes of the United States*, and *The History of the Catholic Church in the United States*.

664. Later Writers. Among the prominent literary men and women of the last quarter century may be mentioned the following:

Cardinal Gibbons (1834-1921), Baltimore, Maryland, was the distinguished writer of *Faith of Our Fathers*, *Our Christian Heritage*, and *The Ambassadors of Christ*—works which are rich contributions to American letters and which have won a wide circulation.

The Right Reverend James L. Spalding (1840-1917), Peoria, Illinois, has given us productions of a master mind and of a ripe and broad scholarship in essays published under the titles of *Education and the Higher Life*, *Things of the Mind*, *Means and Ends of Education*, *Thoughts and Theories of Life and Education*.

Father John B. Tabb (1845-1909), Virginia, another poet-priest, is noted for his singularly artistic and refined poetical works. Some of his volumes are "Poems," "An Octave to Mary," and "Poems Grave and Gay."

Father Francis Finn, S. J. (1859-), St. Louis, Missouri, is the author of numerous wholesome works of literature for young people. Among the most popular tales are *Percy Wynn*, *Tom Playfair*, *Mostly Boys*, and *The Football Game*.

Edmund Clarence Stedman (1833-1908), Connecticut, one of the best known and most highly esteemed of American authors, wrote *Fort Sumter*, *Wanted—A Man*, *The Doorstep*, *At Twilight*, and *Alice of Monmouth*.

Eleanor Cecilia Donnelly (1840-1917), Pennsylvania, a Catholic, is the author of many volumes of verse, including the poems "Crowned Stars," "Hymn of the Sacred Heart," "Children of the Golden Sheaf." One of her chief prose works is the *Life of Father Felix*.

Maurice Francis Egan (1852-), Pennsylvania, a Catholic, will be remembered as a novelist for *The Disappearance of John Longworthy*, *Success of Patrick Desmond*, *The Vocation of Edward Conway*, and *A Marriage of Reason*. As a poet, Doctor Egan ranks high in American literature. Two volumes of verse published by him are *Preludes* and *Songs and Sonnets*.

Francis Marion Crawford (1854-1909), holds the first place in the American school of romantic novelists. Among his stories may be mentioned *A Roman Singer*, *Dr. Claudius*, and *Marzio's Crucifix*. He spent the greater part of his life in Rome, and his strongest subjects were Italian life and scenery.

665. Catholicity. In the United States, the Catholic Church, whose children were the first in discovery, first in the establishment of Christianity, first in the organization of civil government, first in proclaiming religious toleration, and first and unanimous in the support of Washington, has left monuments and memorials of her passage from the Canadian borders to the southernmost coast of Florida, and from the Atlantic to the Pacific. These monuments and memorials may be traced in the numerous churches, religious houses, and institutions of piety, charity, and learning, as also in the name of cities, mountains, rivers, and bays. The marvelous growth of the Church in numbers, achievements, and popularity, today engages the attention of the world. After the Revolution, Bishop Carroll, the sole bishop, with thirty or forty priests, ministered to a flock of about fifty thousand souls, all scattered over a vast area, in which there were no schools, colleges, hospitals, or asylums; in 1919 the Catholic Church numbered sixteen archbishops—two of whom were cardinals—ninety-three bishops, 21,643 priests, 7,086 educational institutions in which were distributed about 1,779,709

students, and over four hundred hospitals which annually cared for about half a million patients. Bishop Carroll's flock of fifty thousand had increased to a Catholic laity of 17,885,645 souls, whose spiritual wants were administered to in 16,580 churches. Verily, the "mustard seed" had developed into a "mighty tree."

The Catholics of the United States have given the country a long line of illustrious men—theologians, philosophers, scholars, orators, statesmen, soldiers, and sailors, a vast number of artisans and craftsmen who, by labor and thrift, have contributed to the growth of the wealth of the country. Their missionaries have sought out the most savage Indian tribes, and have won them to Christianity and civilization. Their sisterhoods have brought relief and comfort to multitudes in hospitals, on the battlefield, and in tenements.



CARDINAL GIBBONS

The teaching brotherhoods and sisterhoods of the Church have gathered in thousands of children to the nation, and fitted them to become worthy citizens of America, and an honor to the Church and State.

666. Death of Cardinal Gibbons and Chief Justice White. During the early months of 1921 our country suffered the loss of two of its greatest citizens—His Eminence James Cardinal Gibbons and Chief Justice Edward D. White.

Cardinal Gibbons was the foremost prelate of the Catholic Church in the United States. He was born in Baltimore, Maryland, in 1843, where he was ordained a priest shortly after the opening of the Civil War. His zeal and extraordinary

ability soon won the admiration of all with whom he came into contact. Wherever God called him to serve he became the leader not only in Catholic affairs but in every progressive movement. He built churches, opened schools, introduced the teaching Orders of Sisters, and labored ardently for Church and country. After twenty-five years in the service of God, he was created cardinal by Pope Leo XIII (1886). For twenty-five years he was the only cardinal in the United States. During his cardinalate the Catholic University of Washington was founded and the first convention of Catholic laymen of the United States was held.

When the United States entered the World War, His Eminence, although eighty-three years of age, was one of the first citizens to offer to the President his patriotic and loyal support.

In the death of Chief Justice Edward D. White our country lost not only a great judge but an ideal citizen. Of him former President Taft said, "No judge ever sat on the Supreme Bench who was more deeply patriotic, more strongly American, more anxious for the welfare of his country."

Questions

1. Name and locate the "westernmost islands" mentioned in Section 626. Show on the map the expansion of the United States since the adoption of the Constitution. Explain how and when each addition was made.

2. Discuss the growth of our population. Why has the United States passed laws restricting immigration? Why have American cities grown so rapidly? Do you consider this a good thing for the country?

3. Describe the growth of American industry. Name four important labor-saving devices invented by Americans.

4. What is the meaning of Standard Time? What system of time is in use where you live?

5. Why was full suffrage given to women by an amendment to the Constitution? What amendment provided for this? Read the amendment.

6. Describe the progress of the Negro.

7. Who supports the public elementary schools? Who supports the Catholic elementary schools? Name two or three public colleges and universities. Name three Catholic colleges and universities. What is illiteracy? Why is there illiteracy in the United States in spite of the many schools?

What is the Chautauqua movement? What has it done for education? What is the purpose of the Catholic Educational Association?

8. What progress has been made in medicine? In music? In architecture? In painting? In sculpture? What attention is being given in your parish to sacred music? Tell the class the name and author of each of the literary productions named in Section 662 which you have read. Which did you enjoy most? Why? How many of Father Tabb's poems do you know? How many of Father Finn's stories have you read?

9. What position has the Catholic Church in the United States?

Theme Topics

1. Write a short theme on one of the following men: Elias Howe, Charles Goodyear, Thomas Edison.

2. Let three or four pupils read Booker T. Washington's book, *Up from Slavery*. Each pupil will tell the class about some part of the book that interested him or her most.

3. Let each pupil in the class memorize one poem selected from the works of Bryant, Longfellow, Whittier, Lowell, Father Ryan, Alice Cary, Phoebe Cary, or Father Tabb. Be prepared to recite the poem selected if the teacher calls upon you.

4. Have two members of the class read Moses, *Louisa May Alcott*. Then let each one tell an interesting incident from the book. Make your account so interesting that others in the class will want to read the book.

5. Has any member of the class ever seen a famous painting or statue by an artist or sculptor mentioned in Sections 660 and 661? If so, let the pupil describe it to the others.

CHRONOLOGICAL REVIEW

1865-1922

Andrew Johnson's Administration (1865-1869)—Republican.

1865. Andrew Johnson is inaugurated as the seventeenth President.

Reconstruction of the southern states is begun.

The Freedman's Bureau Bill is passed (March).

The Thirteenth Amendment is adopted (December).

1866. The Civil Rights Bill is passed (March).

The Atlantic cable is successfully laid (June).

The Second Plenary Council meets at Baltimore.

1867. Nebraska is admitted to the Union as the thirty-seventh state (March).

The Tenure of Office Bill is passed (March).

The United States purchases Alaska from Russia.

Maximilian is shot in Mexico (June).

1868. President Johnson is impeached by the House of Representatives, but the trial ends in his acquittal.

The Fourteenth Amendment is adopted (July).

Carpet-bag governments are established in the South.

Ulysses S. Grant's Administration (1869-1877)—Republican.

1869. Ulysses S. Grant is inaugurated as the eighteenth President.

The Union Pacific Railroad is completed (May).

The Ku Klux Klan society is organized in the South.

1870. The Fifteenth Amendment is adopted (March).

1871. Great fires occur in Chicago. Forest fires lay waste parts of Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Michigan.

All the states are again represented in Congress.

1872. The Alabama difficulty is settled.

A destructive fire breaks out in Boston (November).

President Grant is reelected.

1873. A great financial panic disturbs the country.
The Modoc Indians are subdued.
A law is passed demonetizing silver.
1875. Archbishop McCloskey is created cardinal (April).
1876. The centennial of the Declaration of Independence is celebrated in Philadelphia (May—November).
Colorado is admitted as the thirty-eighth state (August).
General Custer's force is slaughtered by Sioux Indians.
Rutherford B. Hayes's Administration (1877-1881)—Republican.
1877. Rutherford B. Hayes is inaugurated as the nineteenth President.
1878. The Bland-Allison Bill is passed by Congress.
The electric light is invented by Edison.
Pope Pius IX dies and is succeeded by Leo XIII.
1879. Resumption of Specie Payment goes into effect.
Garfield's and Arthur's Administrations (1881-1885)—Republican.
1881. James A. Garfield is inaugurated as the twentieth President.
The President is shot by Charles Guiteau (July 2) and dies (September 19).
Vice-president Chester A. Arthur is formally inaugurated as the twenty-first President.
The nation celebrates the Yorktown Centennial.
1882. Congress passes an act restricting Chinese immigration for ten years.
1883. The Pendleton Civil Service Reform Act is passed.
1884. A great cotton exposition is opened at New Orleans.
The Third Plenary Council meets at Baltimore.
- Grover Cleveland's Administration (1885-1889)—Democratic.
1885. Grover Cleveland is inaugurated as the twenty-second President.
Venerable Cardinal McCloskey, Ex-president Grant, General McClellan, and General Sheridan die.

1886. Archbishop Gibbons is created cardinal.
The Presidential Succession Bill is enacted.
The Statue of Liberty is erected in New York Harbor.
1887. The Interstate Commerce Law is passed.
The Tenure of Office Act is repealed.
Anarchists cause serious riots in Chicago.
1888. Australian Ballot System adopted in many states.
Benjamin Harrison's Administration (1889-1893)—Republican.
1889. Benjamin Harrison is inaugurated as the twenty-third President.
Oklahoma Territory is opened to settlers (April).
The nation celebrates the centennial of the beginning of our government under the Constitution and of Washington's inauguration (April).
A disastrous flood occurs at Johnstown, Pennsylvania.
The Catholic Church celebrates the hundredth anniversary of the establishment of the hierarchy (November).
North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, and Washington are admitted to the Union (November).
The Pan-American Congress assembles in Washington.
1890. The Dependent Pension Bill is passed.
The McKinley Tariff is enacted.
The Silver Coinage Act is passed.
Idaho and Wyoming are admitted to the Union (July).
Grover Cleveland's Administration (1893-1897)—Democratic.
1893. Grover Cleveland is inaugurated as the twenty-fourth President.
The Hawaiians rebel against their Queen.
A Seal Fishery Treaty is negotiated with England.
The Sherman Act is repealed.
The Wilson Tariff Act is passed.
The World's Columbian Exposition is held in Chicago.
1894. The Hawaiian Islands are organized into an independent republic.

1895. The Venezuelan difficulty is settled by arbitration.

1896. Utah is admitted to the Union as the forty-fifth state.

William McKinley's Administration (1897-1901)—Republican.

1897. William McKinley is inaugurated as the twenty-fifth President.

The Dingley Tariff Bill becomes a law (July).

1898. Spain grants self-government to Cuba and Porto Rico (January).

The *Maine* is blown up in Havana harbor (February).

Congress declares war to exist with Spain (April 25).

McKinley calls for volunteers.

Cuba is blockaded by the American fleet.

General Shafter wins the battle of El Caney.

Lieutenant Hobson sinks the *Merrimac* (June).

Commodore Schley destroys Cervera's fleet.

The Spanish commander, Toral, surrenders Santiago to the Americans (July).

General Miles captures Porto Rico (July).

Admiral Dewey wins the battle of Manila (May 1).

A treaty of peace is signed at Paris (December 10).

Porto Rico and the Philippines are ceded to the United States.

The Hawaiian Islands are annexed by the United States.

1899. An insurrection occurs in the Philippines.

The Samoan difficulty is settled and the United States acquires Tutuila.

The war in the Philippines is ended.

The United States sends commissioners to the World's Peace Conference at The Hague.

1900. The Boxer uprising occurs in China.

United States secures the "Open-Door" with China.

McKinley is reelected (November).

1901. President McKinley is assassinated (September 6).

Vice-president Roosevelt assumes the presidential office.

1902. Irrigation laws are passed for the reclamation of western arid lands.
The United States acquires the islands of St. Thomas, St. Croix, and St. John.
1903. A coal strike occurs in Pennsylvania.
The Trans-Pacific cable is laid.
Pope Leo XIII dies (July 20) and Pius X is elected his successor (August 4).
1904. The Louisiana Purchase Exposition is held at St. Louis.
Work on Panama canal is begun by United States.
Theodore Roosevelt's Administration (1905-1909)—Republican.
1905. Theodore Roosevelt is inaugurated as the twenty-sixth President.
Lewis and Clark Exposition is held at Portland.
A treaty between Russia and Japan is negotiated at Portsmouth, New Hampshire.
1906. San Francisco is devastated by an earthquake.
1907. The Second Peace Conference convenes at The Hague.
American battleship fleet circumnavigates globe.
1908. Provisions are made for the conservation of our natural resources.
William H. Taft's Administration (1909-1913)—Republican.
1909. William H. Taft is inaugurated as the twenty-seventh President.
Robert E. Peary discovers the North Pole (April).
The Payne-Aldrich Tariff Bill is passed (August).
1910. Postal Savings Banks are established.
The Hague Tribunal settles the Newfoundland fishing question.
Chief Justice Fuller dies (July), and Edward D. White becomes his successor.
War with Mexico is imminent.
1911. A new treaty is negotiated with Japan (March).
Archbishops Farley and O'Connell are created cardinals.

New Mexico and Arizona are admitted to the Union.

Amundsen discovers the South Pole (December).

1912. The *Titanic* disaster occurs.

Woodrow Wilson's Administration (1913-1921)—Democrat.

1913. Woodrow Wilson is inaugurated as the twenty-eighth President.

The Sixty-third Congress meets in extra session.

The Underwood Tariff Measure is enacted.

Congress passes Sixteenth and Seventeenth Amendments.

An Income Tax Law is passed.

A New Currency Bill goes into effect.

The Parcel Post is established.

1914. The Tolls Repeal Bill is passed.

Trouble with Mexico is adjusted.

Cape Cod Canal is completed.

President Wilson makes his famous Declaration of Neutrality.

Pope Pius X dies and Benedict XV is elected his successor.

1915. German submarine sinks the *Lusitania*, causing the loss of many American lives (May).

President Wilson sends a note of protest to the German Government.

1916. Wilson is inaugurated as President for a second term.

1917. The submarine warfare continues.

The United States breaks off diplomatic relations with Germany.

Congress declares war on Germany (April 6).

Archbishops of the Catholic Church pledge aid to the government (April 18).

Council of National Defense is organized.

Army Draft Bill is passed by Congress (May).

Registration Day is observed (June 5).

Pershing and his staff arrive in Paris (June 7).

The First Liberty Loan is floated.

- The Insurance Act is passed (October).
1918. President Wilson presents his peace program of fourteen points (January 8).
The first German offensive is begun (March).
First battle for Americans (April).
Americans gain victory at Chateau-Thierry (May).
Battle of Belleau Woods (June).
Battle of the Marne (July).
Victory at St. Mihiel (September).
Victory on Meuse-Argonne front (November 1-6).
The Armistice is signed (November 11).
The Peace Conference meets in Versailles (December 1).
1919. Rehabilitation school is established (May 1).
League of Nations accepted by the delegates to Peace Conference (December).
The Eighteenth Amendment is adopted (June 16).
The Treaty of Peace is signed (June 28).
The United States Senate rejects the Treaty (July 10).
1920. The Nineteenth Amendment is adopted (August 26).
Warren G. Harding's Administration (1921-)—Republican.
1921. Warren G. Harding is inaugurated as the twenty-seventh President.
Cardinal Gibbons dies (March 24).
Chief Justice White dies (May 19).
The Washington Conference convenes (November).
The Five-Power Naval Treaty is adopted (November).
The Four-Power Treaty is adopted (November).
1922. Pope Benedict XV dies and Pius XI is elected his successor.

A READING LIST FOR PUPILS

Below are listed thirty-four books for the use of pupils in preparing themes and in gaining supplementary knowledge of the subjects discussed in the text. The authors feel that reading in such a restricted list is preferable to reading indiscriminately in a longer one.

Each book is given a number. Thereafter, in the references listed chapter by chapter, a book is referred to by its number, and is followed by the pages to be read. For instance, the notation 8, II, 75-85 means that the pupil is to read Southworth's *Builders of Our Country*, Volume II, pages 75-85.

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12. Eggleston, G. C., *Our First Century*, New York, A. S. Barnes & Company, 1905.
13. Sparks, E. E., *The Men Who Made the Nation*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1916.
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15. Guerber, H. A., *Story of the Great Republic*, New York, American Book Company, 1899.
16. Coe, F. E., *Makers of the Nation*, New York, American Book Company, 1912.

17. Hart, A. B., *How Our Grandfathers Lived*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1902.
18. Gordy, W. F., *Stories of Later American History*, New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1915.
19. Sparks, E. E., *The Expansion of the American People*, Chicago, Scott, Foresman and Company, 1900.
20. Seawell, M. E., *Twelve Naval Captains*, New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1908.
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24. Hill, H. C., *Community Life and Civic Problems*, Boston, Ginn & Company, 1922.
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27. Rolt-Wheeler, F. W., *The Wonder of War on Land*, Boston, Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Company, 1918.
28. Rowell, C. W., *Leaders of the Great War*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1919.
29. Teall, E. N., "The Watch Tower," in *St. Nicholas Magazine*, volumes 47 and 48, published by The Century Company, New York.
30. *The Youth's Companion*, 1920-1923. See "Current Events" in the various issues.
31. Washington, Booker T., *Up from Slavery*, New York, Doubleday, Page & Company, 1915.
32. Parkman, M. R., *Conquests of Invention*, New York, The Century Company, 1921.
33. Moses, B., *Louisa May Alcott*, New York, D. Appleton & Company, 1909.
34. Antin, Mary, *The Promised Land*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1912.

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*The key for the references will be found on page 485.

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- CHAPTER XLIV. 8, II, 271-273. Selected chapters from 31, 32, 33, and 34.

A READING LIST FOR THE TEACHER

The following books are suggested for supplementary reading. In them the teacher will find ample material to supplement the present text. The best interpretation of history to pupils is possible only when the teacher is capable of presenting to them a high and fine conception of the facts which comes through familiarity with various opinions concerning the facts. As with the reading list for the pupils, each book is numbered. Later references are listed according to the numbers of the books.

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3. *Public School Methods*, Index and Volumes I, II, III, IV, V, VI, Chicago, School Methods Publishing Company, 1921.
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5. Lummis, C. F., *Spanish Pioneers*, Chicago, McClurg & Company, 1893.
6. DeCourcy, Henri, and Shea, John Gilmary, *New History of the Catholic Church in the United States*, New York, P. J. Kenedy Company, 1904.
7. MacCaffrey, James, *History of the Catholic Church in the Nineteenth Century*, St. Louis, B. Herder, 1910.
8. Earle, Alice Morse, *Customs and Fashions in Old New England*, New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1914.
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11. Wilson, Woodrow, *George Washington*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1896.
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14. Morse, John Torrey, Jr., *Thomas Jefferson*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1883.
15. West, Willis Mason, *History of the American People*, Boston, Allyn & Bacon, 1918.

16. Dodd, William E., *Expansion and Conflict*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 3 volumes, 1915.
17. Haworth, Paul Leland, *The United States in Our Own Times*, New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1920.
18. Latané, John Holladay, *History of the United States*, New York, Allyn & Bacon, 1921.
19. *Daily News Almanac and Year Book*, 1915, 1918, Chicago Daily News Publishing Company.
20. Dodd, William Edward, *Woodrow Wilson and His Work*, New York, Doubleday, Page & Company, 1920.
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THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

In Congress, July 4, 1776.

The following declaration of principles was agreed to on July 4, 1776, and is thus recorded in the Journal of Congress for that day:

Agreeably to the order of the day, the Congress resolved itself into a committee of the whole to take into their further consideration the Declaration; and, after some time, the president resumed the chair, and Mr. Harrison reported that the committee have agreed to a Declaration, which they desired him to report. The Declaration being read, was agreed to as follows:

THE UNANIMOUS DECLARATION OF THE THIRTEEN UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident: That all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; that, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present king of

Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these states. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

1. He has refused his assent to laws, the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

2. He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained; and, when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

3. He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature—a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

4. He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

5. He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

6. He has refused for a long time, after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise; the state remaining, in the meantime, exposed to all the dangers of invasions from without and convulsions within.

7. He has endeavored to prevent the population of these states; for that purpose obstructing the laws for naturalization of foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

8. He has obstructed the administration of justice by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

9. He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices and the amount and payment of their salaries.

10. He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat out their substance.

11. He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures.

12. He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

13. He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our Constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation:

a. For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us.

b. For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these states.

- c. For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world.
- d. For imposing taxes on us without our consent.
- e. For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury.
- f. For transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offenses.
- g. For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies.
- h. For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of our governments.
- i. For suspending our own legislature and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

14. He has abdicated government here by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

15. He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

16. He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

17. He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

18. He has excited the domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms: our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in our attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of our common kindred to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind—enemies in war; in peace, friends.

We therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. And for the support of this Declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

The foregoing declaration was, by order of Congress, engrossed and signed by the following members:

John Hancock.

NEW HAMPSHIRE	RHODE ISLAND	NEW YORK
Josiah Bartlett	Stephen Hopkins	William Floyd
William Whipple	William Ellery	Philip Livingston
Matthew Thornton		Francis Lewis
MASSACHUSETTS BAY	CONNECTICUT	Lewis Morris
Samuel Adams	Roger Sherman	NEW JERSEY
John Adams	Samuel Huntington	Richard Stockton
Robert Treat Paine	William Williams	John Witherspoon
Elbridge Gerry	Oliver Wolcott	Francis Hopkinson
John Hart	Thomas M'Kean	
Abraham Clark	MARYLAND	NORTH CAROLINA
PENNSYLVANIA	Samuel Chase	William Hooper
Robert Morris	William Paca	Joseph Hewes
Benjamin Rush	Thomas Stone	John Penn
Benjamin Franklin	Charles Carroll of Car-	SOUTH CAROLINA
John Morton	rollton	Edward Rutledge
George Clymer	VIRGINIA	Thomas Heyward, Jr.
James Smith	George Wythe	Thomas Lynch, Jr.
George Taylor	Richard Henry Lee	Arthur Middleton
James Wilson	Thomas Jefferson	
George Ross	Benjamin Harrison	GEORGIA
DELAWARE	Thomas Nelson, Jr.	Button Gwinnett
Caesar Rodney	Francis Lightfoot Lee	Lyman Hall
George Read	Carter Braxton	George Walton

THE PROVISIONS OF THE CONSTITUTION OUTLINED

Steps leading to the adoption of the Constitution:

1. The New England Confederacy.
2. The Albany Plan.
3. The Stamp Act Congress.
4. The Committees of Correspondence.
5. The First Continental Congress.
6. The Declaration of Independence.
7. The Adoption of the Articles of Confederation.
8. The Annapolis Convention.
9. The Constitutional Convention at Philadelphia.

Relative to the United States Government, the Constitution provides for:

1. The Legislative Department.
 - a. House of Representatives.
 - b. Senate.
2. The Executive Department.
President.
3. The Judicial Department.
 - a. The Supreme Court (consisting at present of the Supreme Justice and nine Associate Justices).
 - b. Other Courts (nine Circuit Courts, about a hundred District Courts, and new Court of Claims).

Relative to the House of Representatives, the Constitution provides for:

1. The manner of electing the members.
By the people of the several states.
2. The term of office.
Two years.
3. The qualifications of members.
 - a. Twenty-five years old.
 - b. A citizen of the United States for seven years.
 - c. A resident of the state for which chosen.
4. The distribution of members.
Among the states according to the number of inhabitants (From 1910-1920 the membership of the House of Representatives is 433 and the unit of representation is 212,032).
5. The presiding officer of the House.
Members elect the Speaker.
6. The power to impeach Federal officers.
7. The Census.

Relative to the Senate, the Constitution provides for:

1. The number of members.
Two from each state.
2. The manner of election.
By popular vote.
3. The term of office.
Six years.
4. The qualifications of members.
 - a. Thirty years of age.
 - b. A citizen of the United States for nine years.
 - c. A resident of the state for which elected.
5. The presiding officer.
 - a. Vice-president of the United States.
 - b. In absence of a Vice-president, a president pro tempore elected by the Senate.
6. The power to act as a court to try impeachments brought by the House of Representatives.

Relative to Congress as a whole the Constitution provides:

1. For the time of meeting.
Each year on the first Monday of December.
2. For the quorum.
Majority.
3. That each house determine its rule of procedure.
4. That each house keep a journal.
5. That neither house adjourn for more than three days without the consent of the other.
6. For the method of passing laws.

Congress has power:

1. To lay taxes.
2. To borrow money.
3. To regulate commerce.
4. To pass laws regulating—
 - a. The naturalization of foreigners.
 - b. Bankruptcy.
5. To coin money.
6. To fix the standard of weights and measures.
7. To establish post-offices.
8. To provide for patents and copyrights.
9. To declare war.
10. To raise and support armies.

11. To maintain a navy.
12. To provide for a standing army.
13. To admit new states.
14. To pass laws necessary to carry out the above powers.

Relative to the President the Constitution provides for:

1. The term of office.
Four years.
2. The manner of election.
By presidential electors chosen by the people of the several states.
3. The qualifications.
 - a. A natural born citizen of the United States.
 - b. Thirty-five years old.
 - c. Fourteen years residence within the United States.
4. The oath of office.
To support the Constitution of the United States.

The President's powers:

1. He is commander-in-chief of:
 - a. The Army.
 - b. The Navy.
 - c. The Militia in service of the United States.
2. He may grant reprieves and pardons.
3. With the consent of the Senate he
 - a. Makes treaties.
 - b. Appoints ambassadors, ministers, consuls, Federal judges.

The President's chief duties are:

1. To send or bring messages to Congress.
2. To summon extra sessions of Congress whenever he deems it necessary.
3. To receive ambassadors.
4. To execute, or enforce, the laws.

Relative to the Federal Judges the Constitution provides for:

1. Their appointment.
By the President with the consent of the Senate.
2. Their membership.
Fixed by Congress.
3. Their term of office.
During good behavior.

Relative to the Federal courts, the Constitution provides for:

1. One Supreme Court.
2. Inferior courts to be established by Congress.

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

PREAMBLE

We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquility, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I

THE LEGISLATIVE DEPARTMENT

The Congress: Its Divisions and Powers

Section 1. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

The House: Its Composition and Powers

Sec. 2. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several states, and the electors in each state shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the state legislature.

No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that state in which he shall be chosen.

(Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several states which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons.*) The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each state shall have at least one representative; and until such enumeration shall be made the state of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three; Massa-

*Partly superseded by the Fourteenth Amendment.

chusetts, eight; Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, one; Connecticut, five; New York, six; New Jersey, four; Pennsylvania, eight; Delaware, one; Maryland, six; Virginia, ten; North Carolina, five; South Carolina, five; and Georgia, three.

When vacancies happen in the representation from any state, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other officers, and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

The Senate: Its Composition and Powers

Sec. 3. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each state, chosen by the legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year; of the second class, at the expiration of the fourth year; of the third class, at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any state, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall fill such vacancies.

No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that state for which he shall be chosen.

The Vice-president of the United States shall be president of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president pro tempore, in the absence of the Vice-president, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments; when sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside; and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall, nevertheless, be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment according to law.

Congressional Elections and Date of Assembling

Sec. 4. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives shall be prescribed in each state by the legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time, by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

Rules of Procedure of Senate and House

Sec. 5. Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner and under such penalties as each house may provide.

Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

Compensation and Privileges of Members

Sec. 6. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

Methods of Legislation

Sec. 7. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate shall, before it becomes a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve, he shall sign it, but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration two-thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two-thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

Powers Vested in Congress

Sec. 8. The Congress shall have power:

To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defenses and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

To regulate commerce with foreign nations and among the several states, and with the Indian tribes;

To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

To establish post offices and post roads;

To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors, the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court;

To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offenses against the law of nations;

To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

To provide and maintain a navy;

To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions;

To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the states, respectively, the appointment of the officers and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular states, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the state in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dockyards, and other needful buildings; and—

To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

Limits to Powers of the Federal Government

Sec. 9. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the states now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, unless when in case of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

No bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed.

No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any state.

No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one state over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one state, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

No money shall be drawn from the treasury but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States. And no person holding any office of profit or trust under them shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

Limits to Powers of the States

Sec. 10. No state shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

No state shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any state on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

No state shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another state, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II

THE EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT

The Executive Officers; the Electoral College

Section 1. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four

years, and, together with the Vice-president, chosen for the same term, be elected, as follows:

Each state shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the state may be entitled in the Congress; but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

(The electors shall meet in their respective states and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate. The president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list the said House shall, in like manner, choose the President. But in choosing the President the votes shall be taken by states, the representation from each state having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the states, and a majority of all the states shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be the Vice-president. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them by ballot the Vice-president.*)

The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

No person except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-president, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice-president, declaring what officer shall then

*This paragraph was in force only from 1788 to 1803.

act as President; and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

The president shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation: "I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States."

Powers Granted to the President

Sec. 2. The President shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several states, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices; and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate shall appoint, ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law; but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior offices as they think proper in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

The President shall have power to fill up vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

The President's Duties

Sec. 3. He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be

faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

Impeachment of Executive and Civil Officers

Sec. 4. The President, Vice-president, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III

THE JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT

The Federal Courts—Supreme and Inferior

Section 1. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the Supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

Powers and Jurisdiction of the Federal Courts

Sec. 2. The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; to controversies between two or more states; (between a state and citizens of another state*); between citizens of different states; between citizens of the same state claiming lands under grants of different states, and between a state, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens, or subjects.

In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, and those in which a state shall be a party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the state where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any state, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

*Cancelled by the Eleventh Amendment.

Treason: Its Nature and Punishment

Sec. 3. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV

RELATION OF THE STATE AND FEDERAL GOVERNMENTS

Recognition of State Authority

Section 1. Full faith and credit shall be given in each state to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other state. And the Congress may, by general laws, prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

Laws Regarding Citizens of the States

Sec. 2. The citizens of each state shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several states.

A person charged in any state with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another state, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the state from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the state having jurisdiction of the crime.

No person held to service or labor in one state, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

Admission of States and Regulation of United States Territories

Sec. 3. New states may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new state shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other state; nor any state be formed by the junction of two or more states, or parts of states, without the consent of the legislatures of the states concerned as well as of the Congress.

The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular state.

Protection Guaranteed by the Federal Government

Sec. 4. The United States shall guarantee to every state in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and on application of the legislature, or of the executive (when the legislature cannot be convened), against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V

POWER AND METHOD OF AMENDING THE CONSTITUTION

The Congress, whenever two-thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two-thirds of the several states, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three-fourths of the several states, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no state, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI

PUBLIC DEBTS; THE SUPREME LAW; OATH OF OFFICE;
RELIGIOUS TEST PROHIBITED

All debts contracted and engagements entered into before the adoption of this Constitution shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution as under the confederation.

This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every state shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or laws of any state to the contrary notwithstanding.

The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several state legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several states, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII

RATIFICATION AND ESTABLISHMENT OF THE CONSTITUTION

The ratification of the conventions of nine states shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the states so ratifying the same.

Done in convention by the unanimous consent of the states present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the independence of the United States of America the twelfth.

In witness whereof, we have hereunto subscribed our names,

GEO. WASHINGTON,

Deputy from Virginia.

NEW HAMPSHIRE:

John Langdon
Nicholas Gilman

MASSACHUSETTS:

Nathaniel Gorham
Rufus King

CONNECTICUT:

William Samuel Johnson
Roger Sherman

NEW YORK:

Alexander Hamilton

NEW JERSEY:

William Livingston
David Brearley
William Paterson
Jonathan Dayton

PENNSYLVANIA:

Benjamin Franklin
Thomas Mifflin
Robert Morris
George Clymer
Thomas Fitzsimmons
James Wilson
Gouverneur Morris

DELAWARE:

George Read
Gunning Bedford, Jr.
John Dickinson
Richard Bassett
Jacob Broom

MARYLAND:

James McHenry
Daniel of St. Thomas Jenifer
Daniel Carroll

VIRGINIA:

John Blair
James Madison, Jr.

NORTH CAROLINA:

William Blount
Richard Dobbs Spaight
Hugh Williamson

SOUTH CAROLINA:

John Rutledge
Charles Pinckney
Charles Cotesworth Pinckney
Pierce Butler

GEORGIA:

William Few
Abraham Baldwin

Attest: WILLIAM JACKSON, Secretary.

AMENDMENTS

Articles in addition to, and amendments of, the Constitution of the United States of America, proposed by Congress, and ratified by the legislatures of the several states pursuant of the fifth article of the original Constitution.

ARTICLE I

FREEDOM OF RELIGION AND SPEECH; RIGHT OF ASSEMBLY

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II

RIGHT TO BEAR ARMS

A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free state, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III

QUARTERING OF TROOPS

No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner; nor in time of war but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV

RIGHT OF SEARCH PROHIBITED

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V

RIGHT OF TRIAL BY JURY

No person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual

service in time of war and public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life and limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI

RIGHTS OF ACCUSED IN CRIMINAL CASES

In all criminal prosecutions the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the state and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

ARTICLE VII

SUITS AT COMMON LAW

In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States than according to the rules of common law.

ARTICLE VIII

BAIL AND FINES

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX

MODIFICATION OF ENUMERATED RIGHTS

The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X

POWERS RESERVED TO STATES AND THE PEOPLE

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the states, are reserved to the states respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XI

LIMITATION TO POWER OF THE FEDERAL COURTS

The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another state, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

ARTICLE XII

NEW ELECTORAL LAW

The electors shall meet in their respective states and vote by ballot for President and Vice-president, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-president; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice-president, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate; the President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; the person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the vote shall be taken by states, the representation from each state having one vote. A quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the states, and a majority of all the states shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-president shall act as president, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-president shall be the Vice-president, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list the Senate shall choose the Vice-president. A quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-president of the United States.

ARTICLE XIII

ABOLITION OF SLAVERY

Slavery and Involuntary Servitude Prohibited

Section 1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

Sec. 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIV

NEW LAWS MADE NECESSARY BY THE CIVIL WAR

Qualifications for Citizenship

Section 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the state wherein they reside. No state shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any state deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

Apportionment of Representatives

Sec. 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several states according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each state, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-president of the United States, representatives in Congress, the executive or judicial officers of a state, or the members of the legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such state, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion, or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such state.

Disability for Breaking Oath of Office

Sec. 3. No person shall be a senator, or representative in Congress, or elector of President or Vice-president, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any state, who, having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or

as a member of any state legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any state, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two-thirds of each house, remove such disability.

The Public Debt

Sec. 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any state shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void.

Sec. 5. Congress shall have the power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ARTICLE XV

RIGHT OF SUFFRAGE

Right Guaranteed to All Citizens

Section 1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any state, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

Sec. 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XVI

INCOME TAX

The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes on incomes, from whatever source derived, without apportionment among the several states, and without regard to any census or enumeration.

ARTICLE XVII

ELECTION OF SENATORS

The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, elected by the people thereof, for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote. The electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislatures.

When vacancies happen in the representation of any State in the Senate, the executive authority of such State shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies: *Provided*, That the legislature of any State may empower the executive thereof to make temporary appointments until the people fill the vacancies by election as the legislature may direct.

This amendment shall not be so construed as to affect the election or term of any Senator chosen before it becomes valid as part of the Constitution.

ARTICLE XVIII

PROHIBITION

Section 1. After one year from the ratification of this article, the manufacture, sale, or transportation of intoxicating liquors within, the importation thereof into, or the exportation thereof from the United States and all territory subject to the jurisdiction thereof for beverage purposes is hereby prohibited.

Sec. 2. The Congress and the several States shall have concurrent power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

Sec. 3. This article shall be inoperative unless it shall have been ratified as an amendment to the Constitution by the legislatures of the several states, as provided in the Constitution, within seven years from the date of the submission hereof to the States by Congress.

ARTICLE XIX

WOMAN SUFFRAGE

The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex.

Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

PRESIDENTS, VICE-PRESIDENTS, SECRETARIES OF STATE, AND CHIEF JUSTICES

No.	President	State	Term of Office	By Whom Elected	States Voting	Vice-President	Secretary of State	Chief Justice Supreme Court
1	George Washington	Va.	Two; 1789-97	All	{10} {15}	John Adams	{Thomas Jefferson Edmund Randolph Timothy Pickens Timothy Pickens John Marshall James Madison}	John Jay 1789-1795 John Rutledge 1795-1795 Oliver Ellsworth 1796-1800 John Marshall 1801-1835
2	John Adams	Mass.	One; 1797-1801	Fed.	16	Thomas Jefferson		
3	Thomas Jefferson	Va.	Two; 1801-09	Dem.-Rep.	{16 17}	{Aaron Burr George Clinton}	{James Madison Robert Smith James Monroe John Quincy Adams}	
4	James Madison	Va.	Two; 1809-17	Dem.-Rep.	{17 18}	{George Clinton Elbridge Gerry}		
5	James Monroe	Va.	Two; 1817-25	Dem.-Rep.	{19} {24}	Daniel D. Tompkins		
6	John Quincy Adams	Mass.	One; 1825-29	House	24	John C. Calhoun	Henry Clay	
7	Andrew Jackson	Tenn.	Two; 1829-37	Dem.	{24 24}	{John C. Calhoun Martin Van Buren}	{Martin Van Buren Edward Livingston Louis McLane John Forsyth John Forsyth Daniel Webster Hugh S. Legare Abel P. Upshur John C. Calhoun James Buchanan John M. Clayton Daniel Webster Edward Everett William L. Marcy Lewis Cass Jeremiah S. Black William H. Seward}	Roger B. Taney 1836-1864
8	Martin Van Buren	N. Y.	One; 1837-41	Dem.	26	Richard M. Johnson		
9	William H. Harrison	Ohio	One m.; 1841	Whigs	26	John Tyler		
10	John Tyler	Va.	3 yrs. 11 m.; 1841-45	Whigs				
11	James K. Polk	Tenn.	One; 1845-49	Dem.	26	George M. Dallas		
12	Zachary Taylor	La.	1 yr. 4 m.; 1849-50	Whigs	30	Millard Fillmore		
13	Millard Fillmore	N. Y.	2 yrs. 8 m.; 1850-53	Whigs				
14	Franklin Pierce	N. Hamp.	One; 1853-57	Dem.	31	William R. King		
15	James Buchanan	Peun.	One; 1857-61	Dem.	31	J. C. Breckinridge		
16	Abraham Lincoln	Ill.	One 1 m.; 1861-65	Rep.	{33 25}	{Hannibal Hamlin Andrew Johnson}	{William H. Seward Elihu B. Washburne Hamilton Fish William M. Evarts James G. Blaine F. T. Frelinghuysen Thomas F. Bayard James G. Blaine Walter Q. Gresham Richard J. Olney John Sherman John Hay John Hay Elihu Root Philander C. Knox Wm. J. Bryan Robt. Lansing Chas. E. Hughes}	Salmon P. Chase 1864-1873 Morrison R. Waite 1874-1888 Melville W. Fuller 1888-1910
17	Andrew Johnson	Tenn.	3 yrs. 11 m.; 1865-69	Rep.	{34 35}	{Schuyler Colfax Henry Wilson}		
18	Ulysses S. Grant	Ill.	Two; 1869-77	Rep.	38	William A. Wheeler		
19	Rutherford B. Hayes	Ohio	One; 1877-81	Rep.	38	Chester A. Arthur		
20	James A. Garfield	Ohio	6 m.; 1881	Rep.	38	Thomas A. Hendricks		
21	Chester A. Arthur	N. Y.	3 yrs. 5 m.; 1881-85	Rep.	38	Levi P. Morton		
22	Grover Cleveland	N. Y.	One; 1885-89	Dem.	38	Adlai E. Stevenson		
23	Benjamin Harrison	Ind.	One; 1889-93	Rep.	44			
	Grover Cleveland	N. Y.	One; 1893-97	Dem.				
24	William McKinley	Ohio	One 7 m.; 1897-1901	Rep.	{45 45}	{Garret A. Hobart Theodore Roosevelt Charles W. Fairbanks}		
25	Theodore Roosevelt	N. Y.	Two; 1901-1909	Rep.	45	James S. Sherman		
26	William H. Taft	Ohio	One; 1909-13	Rep.	46	Thomas R. Marshall		
27	Woodrow Wilson	Va.	Two; 1913-1921	Dem.	{48 48}	Calvin Coolidge		
28	Warren G. Harding	Ohio	1921-	Rep.	48			

TABLE OF STATES

STATES	Admission	Capitals	Census of 1920	Number of Repre- sentatives
Alabama	Dec. 14, 1819	Montgomery	2,348,174	10
Arizona	Feb. 14, 1912	Phoenix	334,162	1
Arkansas	June 15, 1836	Little Rock	1,752,204	7
California	Sept. 9, 1850	Sacramento	3,426,861	11
Colorado	Aug. 1, 1876	Denver	939,629	4
Connecticut		Hartford	1,380,631	5
Delaware		Dover	223,003	1
Florida	Mar. 3, 1845	Tallahassee	968,470	4
Georgia		Atlanta	2,895,832	12
Idaho	July 3, 1890	Boise City	431,866	2
Illinois	Dec. 3, 1818	Springfield	6,485,280	27
Indiana	Dec. 11, 1816	Indianapolis	2,930,390	13
Iowa	Dec. 28, 1846	Des Moines	2,404,021	11
Kansas	Jan. 29, 1861	Topeka	1,769,257	8
Kentucky	June 1, 1792	Frankfort	2,416,630	11
Louisiana	April 30, 1812	Baton Rouge	1,798,509	8
Maine	Mar. 15, 1820	Augusta	768,014	4
Maryland		Annapolis	1,449,661	6
Massachusetts		Boston	3,852,356	16
Michigan	June 26, 1837	Lansing	3,668,412	13
Minnesota	May 11, 1858	St. Paul	2,387,125	10
Mississippi	Dec. 10, 1817	Jackson	1,790,618	8
Missouri	Aug. 10, 1821	Jefferson City	3,404,055	16
Montana	Nov. 8, 1889	Helena	548,889	2
Nebraska	Mar. 1, 1867	Lincoln	1,296,372	6
Nevada	Oct. 31, 1864	Carson City	77,407	1
New Hampshire		Concord	443,083	2
New Jersey		Trenton	3,155,900	12
New Mexico	Jan. 6, 1912	Santa Fe	360,350	1
New York		Albany	10,385,227	43
North Carolina		Raleigh	2,559,123	10
North Dakota	Nov. 2, 1889	Bismarck	646,872	3
Ohio	Feb. 19, 1803	Columbus	5,759,394	22
Oklahoma	Nov. 16, 1907	Oklahoma City	2,028,283	8
Oregon	Feb. 14, 1859	Salem	783,389	3
Pennsylvania		Harrisburg	8,720,017	36
Rhode Island		Newport	604,397	3
South Carolina		Columbia	1,683,724	7
South Dakota	Nov. 2, 1889	Pierre	636,547	3
Tennessee	June 1, 1796	Nashville	2,337,885	10
Texas	Dec. 29, 1845	Austin	4,663,228	18
Utah	Jan. 4, 1896	Salt Lake City	449,396	2
Vermont	Mar. 4, 1791	Montpelier	352,428	2
Virginia		Richmond	2,309,187	10
Washington	Nov. 11, 1889	Olympia	1,356,621	5
West Virginia	June 19, 1863	Charleston	1,463,701	6
Wisconsin	May 29, 1848	Madison	2,632,067	11
Wyoming	July 10, 1890	Cheyenne	194,402	1

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alien, a foreigner; one who is not a citizen of a country, land, or government either by right of birth or naturalization, 203.
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allegiance, the duty of loyalty to one's king, government, or state, 70.
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arbitration, the hearing and determining by an arbitrator of a matter of dispute between two or more parties, 345, 367, 373, 383, 392, 397, 481.
Argus, ship, 221.
arid lands, irrigation of, 389.
aristocratic, being in favor of a government in which the sovereign power is entirely in the hands of certain persons; tending toward displaying preëminence by reason of birth, wealth and culture, 99.
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Armada, Invincible, a strong fleet composed of one hundred fifty ships. It was sent (1588) by King Philip II of Spain against England to avenge the raiding and plundering attacks of Sir Francis Drake and other English seamen, 43.
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- army, American Revolutionary—
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- arts are classified as:
 - a. The fine arts, or arts of beauty; such as painting, sculpture, music, poetry, etc.
 - b. The industrial or useful arts, which include the trades requiring chiefly manual labor and skill.
 - c. The liberal arts embrace the higher branches of learning such as the languages, history, sciences, etc.
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- Bedini, a representative of the Holy Father sent to the United States (1853), to examine into the state of ecclesiastical affairs and incidentally to call on the president and present to him the compliments and good wishes of the Holy Father, 270.
- Bee, General, 299.
- Belgium, in World War, 411-430.
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 blockade, the investment of a port by a
 hostile naval force of competent strength
 to prevent commercial communication,
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 bombard, to attack with artillery, especially
 to throw shells, hot shot, etc., at or into,
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 borough, a district or province sending mem-
 bers to the assembly, 65.
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 Boxers, a secret society in China akin to the
 Freemasons; their avowed object was
 the expulsion from China of all Chris-
 tians and foreigners, 383.
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- eabal, a secret association composed of a few designing persons; plot or conspiracy, 153.
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- campaign, a connected series of military operations forming a distinct stage in war or political operations preceding an election, 147.
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 - among Negroes, 460, 461.
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- Catholic Women's Societies, 436.
- Cavaliers, those of the Court party in the times of Kings Charles I and II. They were thus called from their long flowing

- looks, gay dress, and demeanors, as contrasted with the austerity of the Parliamentary party, who were styled "Round-heads" from the mode in which they wore their hair closely cropped, 66, 97.
- Cedar Creek, 321.
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- centennial, a one-hundredth celebration of any great event, 37.
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- Charles II, of England, 80, 85, 96, 100, 124.
- Charleston, 74, 75, 159, 161, 163, 177, 179, 182, 358.
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- charter, an official document conveying lands to a company; one granting certain political rights and privileges to the people, 100.
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- charter, Rhode Island, 101, 124, 254.
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- Christina, Fort, 84.
- Christmas Island, 383.
- Chronological Review, 59-62, 123-126, 176-181, 283-291, 331-335, 478-485.
- Cibola, Seven cities of, according to a legend, when the Arabs invaded the Spanish peninsula, seven bishops with many followers escaped and built the seven cities of Cibola on an island in the Atlantic Ocean. One of the Indian tribes preserved a story of seven caves in which their ancestors lived. This was confounded by the Spanish with the legendary tale, 35.
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- English, 80, 103.
- French, 46, 50, 103, 126.
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- Swedish, 84.
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- clan, a tribe composed of all the families tracing descent from a common ancestor.
- Clark, Rogers, conquest of the Northwest, 154, 168, 179, 210.
- Clark, William, 210, 284, 390.
- Clay, Henry, 219, 231, 236, 267, 270, 289.
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- Clinton, George, 219.
- Cloverleaf Bay, 378.

- Cod, Cape, 44, 90.
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 College in Rome, American, "The American College of the Roman Catholic Church of the United States, Rome, Italy," dates its origin to the proclamation of the dogma of the Immaculate Conception (1854). On this occasion a number of American bishops, through Archbishop Hughes of New York and Kendrick of Baltimore, expressed to Pius IX the desire to see an American College established that would take rank with the other national colleges in that city. Subsequently Pius IX purchased, for forty-two thousand dollars an old Visitation Convent, then occupied by soldiers of the French garrison, while the American Bishops furnished it and procured the funds necessary for its maintenance. Accordingly, the college was formally opened with thirteen students (Dec. 8, 1859), and has prospered remarkably ever since, 350.
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 Commissary Department, that department of an army which provides provisions, clothing, and all the daily necessities other than those connected with actual fighting, 152.
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 Commonwealth, a state in which the supreme power is vested in the people; strictly speaking, the form of government existing under Cromwell, and his son Richard, 67.
 Communion, decree on Holy, 394, 412.
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 Compact, Mayflower, 90.
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 Compromise, a settlement by arbitration or by mutual consent reached by concession of both sides, 170.
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 continental line, the permanently organized force of the American army during the Revolution, 140.
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 Crusades, sacred wars undertaken by the chivalry of Christian nations for the deliverance of the Holy Land, and especially the Sepulcher of our Lord, from Mohammedan oppression, 23, 59.
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- De Vaca, Cabeza, 35, 60.
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- Dey, the name given to the commanding officer of the corps of Algiers, 226.
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- Diaz, President, 397, 404.
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- diplomacy, the art and practice of conducting negotiations between nations, particularly in securing treaties, 341.
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 emancipation, the act of setting free from the power of another, 309, 336, 337.
 embargo, an order of the government prohibiting the entry or departure of ships of commerce, in ports within its dominions, 197.
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 emigrated, to have come from one country, state or region, to another for the purpose of settling there, 17.
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 frontier, that part of a country which fronts or faces another country or an unsettled region, 217.
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- Gothic, of or pertaining to the style of architecture so-called; characterized by pointed arches, steep roofs, large windows, and generally great height, 467.
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 Gregorian Chant, a kind of unisonous or plain music according to the eight celebrated Church modes as arranged and prescribed by Pope Gregory in the sixth century, 465.
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- Henry VIII of England, 59.
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- Henry, Prince, 24, 25.
- Herkimer, General, 149.
- Hessians, troops hired by England from several German principalities. The Hessians, many of whom (all of the three thousand Westphalians) were Catholic, did their duty in America bravely and faithfully, with loyalty to a service from which they could expect no profit of their own. The charge sometimes made that they were cruel brabarians is false. They fought because they could not help it. The shame belonged to their princes, and not to themselves, 140, 145, 177.
- hierarchy, a body of persons, bishops, and priests, to whom is entrusted the government of the Church, 368.
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- House of Commons, one of the divisions of the English Parliament consisting of the representatives of the common people, 65.
- House of Lords, one of the divisions of the English Parliament consisting of Lords spiritual (bishops and archbishops), Lords temporal (hereditary or created nobles), 65.
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 Moors, the Moors, followers of Mohammed, originally came from Arabia, whence they swept along the northern coast of Africa as far west as the Strait of Gibraltar. Crossing the strait, they conquered the greater part of the Spanish peninsula. They, however, lost power before the Christian kingdoms of Aragon and Castile, and finally their possessions were limited to the kingdom of Granada, which surrendered to Ferdinand, the Catholic (1492). The expelled Moors settled in northern Africa and eventually developed into the piratical states of Barbary, 27.
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- Nuncio, a permanent official representative of the Pope at a foreign court or seat of government, 270.
- oath of allegiance, a declaration under oath by which a person promises fidelity and loyalty to a particular government or sovereign, 155.
- oath of office, a solemn declaration made by a public official with his hand on the Bible, to preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States and faithfully to perform the duties of his office, 189.
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- Owen-Glass Bill, the currency measure enacted during President Wilson's administration. It is so called because Senator Owen of Oklahoma had charge of it in the Senate, and Representative Glass of Virginia in the House, 402.

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 British nation embracing two branches,
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 parole, promise upon one's faith or honor to
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 bear arms against one's captors, to re-
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 of the cabinet in Great Britain, usually
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 privateers, vessels owned by individuals to
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 reciprocity, an agreement between two coun-
 tries by which special advantages are
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 so named from its badge, a red cross on
 a white ground. Its purpose is the relief
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 style developed from Roman principles,

- characterized mainly by the round arch,
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- sedition, commotion; conduct directed against
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